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Historical and Architectural View of Windsor Castle.

THE fortress of Windsor being intimately connected with the annals of our country, and with the domestic history of our princes, powerfully attracts public curiosity.

The origin of the name, is from the winding shore of the Thames in this vicinity. As early as the time of Edward the Confessor, Wyndlesore was presented to the monastery of St. Peter of Westminster; but it is very doubtful if any royal palace or castle were erected here until the time of William the Conqueror. In this reign the donation of Edward was exchanged with the holy fathers for some lands in Essex and other property, and the Norman prince had not occupied the throne four years, before he built a castle on the site of the round tower, whose courts and synods were convened; and where the Aula Regia was established.

The prudence of his son Henry I. raised a ballium round it, and considerably improved the edifice. Here was held the feast of Whitsuntide in the tenth year of his reign.

Under Stephen it became a respectable fortification; and in the celebrated treaty of peace with duke Henry it was denominated the Mota de Windsor.

William king of Scotland and David his brother were present at Windsor when Henry II. summoned his parliament there in the year 1170.

Richard I. made it a place of residence; and when the mistaken zeal of the times impoverished the western world to depopulate the east, and Cœur de Lion met the gallant Saladin in arms, a regency was appointed; Hugh de Pudsey, bishop of Durham and earl of Northumberland, received the confidence of his sovereign, and A. D. 1189 reposed himself in security within this fortress, esteemed at that period the strongest in the kingdom, excepting the Tower of London.

In the time of John it began to be connected with the military history of the country; in 1215, Magna Charta was signed within the view of its ramparts; a year had not expired before the king was anxious to retract this resignation of imperial power, and in 1216 he successfully defended himself within its walls against the hostile attempts of an indignant nobility.

During the reign of Henry III. in 1263, it was by treaty delivered up to the barons; but it was soon considered as a place of too much

importance to be surrendered, and the same year it was surprised and taken by the royal adherents.

It was occupied in two succeeding reigns rather as a place of enjoyment and of kingly magnificence, than as a national fortress. Edward I. and queen Eleanor were extremely partial to this situation. As an indication of the simplicity of the times, it is stated that she usually went thither by water, not being a good horsewoman, and the roads being impassable for her conveyance by waggons. Within the walls of this palace a numerous progeny was born to Edward, who possessing all the blessings of domestic life, learnt how to transfer the affections of a father from his family to his people. Sir William Blackstone has distinguished this prince by the title of our English Justinian; Sir Matthew Hale has affirmed, that in the first few years of his reign more was effected for the regular administration of distributive justice than by all the princes who succeeded him on the English throne; and the records of our parliament inform us, that in the same period the disposal of the national treasures was assigned to the elective branch of our legislature. Such were the contemplations and duties which engaged Edward's mind in this seat of honourable retirement, which has endeared it to every English heart. In the year 1276 the adjacent town was raised to the rank of a borough by royal charter.

Formerly these castles enclosed beneath the same roof the halls of the prosperous and the cells of the unfortunate: the lamentation of the captive was often heard with the song of conviviality; a discord more descriptive of the barbarous ages, than the horrid tales with which the more barbarous poets of the times supplied their fearful narrative. This was the fact with respect to the fortress of Windsor. In the upper court or ward of the present castle is situated a suite of apartments which was some time since occupied by the maids of honour: before it underwent extensive alterations, it had been devoted to a very different purpose; it was called the Devil's tower, and was reserved for the state prisoners. A melancholy inhabitant wrote an inscription on a stone in the window which was discovered on the occasion of repairing the building at the beginning of the last century. This captive appears to have been an Italian; he states that his confinement was unjust, and it seems to be an application to one of the Edwards, imploring his liberty: the name of Edward occurs three times, but we cannot discover to which of the three early Edwards it is addressed. There is a boldness in the assertion that he was detained "*contra iusta*" that is better suited to the time of Edward III. than to that of his predecessors: during the former period, sovereign princes were manacled before an insulting host, and in this state of humiliation often driven to perpetual captivity. Richard Cœur de Lion complains during his imprisonment in Germany, that he was so loaded with irons he could scarcely move in his dungeon. The spirit of chivalry, however, diffused the sentiments of humanity, and the generous confidence of Edward III. discharged princes and nobles from their prisons, to assist with their friends and their countrymen in the solemn jousts of the land, and to partake in the confidence and hospitality of the royal board; they then again returned to their cells as prisoners of the state, but as friends of the sovereign.

In the year 1313 the castle became the place of nativity of the great Edward III. by whose successful career England first attained the consequence in the annals of Europe, which she has supported and improved in every succeeding century.

However the humble ambition of his predecessors might be satisfied with these accommodations, Edward of Windsor found them wholly inadequate to the purposes of his government, or to the convenience of his family. Excepting three towers, the fortress de Windsor, the mansion

of so many princes, and the seat of synods and of parliaments, was levelled with the ground; and the talents of William de Wyckham were employed to erect a palace on the foundation of the ancient castle, more suited to the festivity of the prince, and to the magnificence of his household.

In the year 1348 Edward had great purposes to effect, which could not wait for the tardy operations of architecture. He had listened to the tradition of Arthur, his magnanimous predecessor, with rapture, and he was determined to make the inclinations of his heart coincide with the schemes of his policy, and with the designs of his ambition. The glory of the future part of his reign depended on the gallantry and wisdom he displayed at this early period.

The court of the young king was at the time frequented by some of the powerful nobility of Spain, Italy, Flanders, Germany, and France; he was preparing for a war with the ancient rival of his kingdom; after the liberty of the subject had been protected by the confirmation of Magna Charta, and the commerce of the country had been promoted by the establishment of the woollen manufactures, his thoughts were fitly directed to the exterior: the arts of negotiation were now to be employed, and it was expedient Edward should place himself on a footing of equality with the distinguished foreigners at his court, to obtain all the advantages of personal treaty; he therefore proclaimed in his own kingdom and throughout civilized Europe a tournament at Windsor. Young as he was, he had already occupied the throne sixteen years, and the fame of his politeness and munificence was advantageously contrasted with the sullen perfidy of Philip. It was the pride of chivalry to appear at this exhibition; an amphitheatre was run up in the style of the Roman buildings of this kind prior to Statilius Taurus, and the knights assembled distinguished themselves by feats of arms; the king mixing himself in the throng, bearing the device of a white swan and this familiar challenge on his shield:

"Hay, hay, the white swan;

"By God's soul I am thy man."

The active and dangerous amusements of the solemn joust were succeeded by the hospitality of the feast. In imitation of the reputed founder of the castle, a round table was introduced; that prince and subject, native and foreigner, might join in the conviviality of the hour without distinction: and it is probable that during these festive moments the foundation was laid of England's future greatness; for while the curiosity and admiration of Europe were yet attracted by the far-famed splendour of this tournament at Windsor, the battle of Cressy was fought and the town of Calais taken.

At the time the monarch was obtaining triumphs abroad, William de Wyckham was employed in constructing a palace at home suited to the reception of his victorious prince. For this purpose he had been invested with full powers to procure materials and artificers; and leets and other courts of the manors of Old and New Windsor were held for trespasses and misdemeanours that should interfere with the progress of this great undertaking. In the thirty-fourth year of Edward the work was prosecuted with extraordinary vigour: difficulties arising in obtaining hands, workmen were impressed not only from London, but writs were directed to the sheriffs of eight counties, to procure from each forty artificers skilful in the different departments of building. Two years afterwards, the dreadful plague that afflicted this country made terrible ravages among these unfortunate labourers; in consequence, writs to the same effect were directed to Shropshire, Hereford, Devon, and four northern

northern counties, to supply upwards of three hundred workmen to execute the plans of William de Wyckham.

We find that these exertions were so far attended with success, that the castle was ready for glazing in 1364; thirty-six persons of this craft were therefore ordered to be impressed, and, to supply them with the large quantity of glass that was necessary, Henry de Stamere and John Brampton were employed to buy this article in all parts of the kingdom.

Wyckham seems to have omitted no violent means that could contribute to the completion of his design. The private convenience of individuals was disregarded, and the agriculture of the country was interrupted for the supply of cattle and carriages to convey the timber and stone to this place of bustle and public activity: the districts of Wellesford, Kelwel, and Careby, of Heseleberg, Demelby, and Melton, were undermined, to raise on the surface this immense quarry. During six years artificers were annually impressed, and the cessation of the writs by which these valuable men were drawn from their homes leads us to conclude, that in the forty-third year of Edward's reign the stupendous fabric was nearly finished.

On a view of the additions to the building in the succeeding reigns, we imagine the architect had by this time finished the king's palace, the hall of St. George, the apartments of the east and south side of the upper ward, the great tower, the chapel of St. George, and the whole of the walls, their gates, towers, and battlements.

In all these operations, it is melancholy to observe the constraint suffered by the most skilful artisans in the kingdom; to induce them to become dependants for their subsistence on the royal treasury: but while we lament as the cause the little confidence that subsisted between the prince and his people, the poverty of the English monarch sufficiently accounts for the material difficulties with which Wyckham had to contend: the private purse of our princes was indeed very scantily supplied. In the succeeding century, the whole revenue of Henry V. (the rival of Edward in gallant exploits on the same ground) did not exceed fifteen thousand pounds for the annual support of his household, the entertainment of ambassadors, and for the royal state of his person. Such great works must therefore be supported by encroachments on the national wealth and on private industry; and these contributed to relieve Edward from the enormous charge incurred in completing this magnificent structure.

The victory of Poitiers placed John, surnamed the Good, king of France, in the hands of the Black Prince: from his native soil he was conveyed a prisoner to this country, and, with the king of Scotland for his companion, occupied the castle as a prisoner of state to the English throne. All who are versed in the history of those times are acquainted with the misfortunes and the virtues of that prince. When Demetrius Phalereus, driven from his country, was in the power of the Egyptian court, he solaced his days of misery by improving in knowledge and virtue the mind of king Ptolemy. It seems highly probable that the afflicted John assuaged the violence of grief by a similar exercise of wisdom and benevolence: every friend of social order and happiness is acquainted with his manly exclamation, "Though faith and truth were banished from the rest of the world, they ought nevertheless to be found in the mouth of kings."

The college of the order of the Garter is held at the castle: the chapel of St. George and the chapter-house were erected by the founder for that purpose.

Windsor,

Windsor, according to Sir John Froissard, about the beginning of the sixth century was honoured with the institution of the *Mensa Rotunda* by king Arthur. In imitation of this establishment, as appears from Rastel's Chronicle, Richard I. at the siege of the city of Acre, sanctioned this incorporation, and twenty-six knights who firmly adhered to him were distinguished by thongs of blue leather tied round the leg. What was left unfinished was completed in the nineteenth year of Edward III. who (according to an early MS. chronicle) then began his round table at Windsor, to be kept at Whitsuntide, and this meeting, Selden observes, occasioned the institution of this noble fraternity. It is the most ancient of all the orders to which the laity are admitted, being half a century prior to the French order of St. Michael, eighty years to that of the Golden Fleece, and about two centuries to those of St. Andrew and of the Elephant.

Two hundred years after the date of the establishment, we find a strange story given in Polydore Virgil about some countess of Salisbury or Pembroke, who having dropped her garter at a public assembly, gave occasion to the motto adopted by the founder. The story is in itself so facetious, and the spirited reply so consonant with Edward's character, that we do not at all wonder at the credit it obtained: Camden, Fern, and our best antiquaries, have, however, abandoned this conjecture; and, on looking into the laws of the society, we find it by no means supported. It is not improbable, that on the glorious day of Cressy a garter was employed in some way as the signal of battle; and hence this distinction of the knights became not only a symbol of their union, but a commemoration of that important victory.

Peter the Great of Russia, much nearer our own times, was not more sensible of the tendency of public exhibitions to soften and refine the manners of his ferocious clans, than our Edward of Windsor, who revived the tournaments with extraordinary splendour. Letters of safe-guard were delivered to the most accomplished foreigners; and females of remarkable beauty were appointed to superintend on these festive occasions. In England, this elegant amusement was first practised under Stephen about the year 1140, but it was not usual until the reign of Cœur de Lion, when it was celebrated with some magnificence in the tilt-yard in St. James's, Smithfield. It was said by Chiauoux, in the time of Charles VIII. "If this contest be in earnest, it is too little; if in jest, too much;" and his remark was recollected with painful impressions some time afterwards, when Henry II. of France was killed in the tilt exhibited at Chalons.

If occasional mischief occurred in these practices, they contributed greatly to improve the manners of the times, and to soften the rancour of national prejudices. The politic Edward proclaimed in the year 1358 the most magnificent tournament that was ever given in the country: it was solemnized at Windsor at the feast of the Knights of the Garter, at that time usually distinguished as the knights of St. George.

The benefit of the industry of Wyckham was now experienced: a vast number of European nobility was convened, and accommodated within the precincts of the castle, and the duke of Brabant and several sovereign princes assisted at the ceremonies. Those knights who attended were required to be in a complete military equipage, with arms on their shields and surcoats; and with caparisons on their horses, their esquires riding before bearing their tilting spears with their pennons, and their helmets adorned with wreaths of silk corresponding with the tinctures of their arms and of their liveries. The tournament being proclaimed, the proper officer suspended two shields upon a tree: he that offered to fight as a pedestrian (which was the more honourable way) made his public challenge

lunge by touching the shield on the right hand; the cavaliers, on the contrary, touched that to the left.

When a knight came near the barriers, he blew a trumpet: on this signal the heralds approached, and registered his name, armorials, and other proofs of his nobility in their books, which is the origin of heraldry.

The champions being admitted within the circle, exchanged those ceremonies which the urbanity of chivalry had established, and paid their respects to the sovereign, the judges, and the ladies of the court. The alarm of the trumpet now proclaimed the contest. The knights, if on horseback, couched their lances, and, spurring their indignant steeds, ran fiercely against each other; and the spear being directed at the armour, a terrible shock was given, the clangor of arms was heard, and the shivered weapons glistened on the ground. If neither party were injured, it was considered honourable to continue the conflict to the third encounter; but it was disgraceful if a knight were dismounted, if he dropped his lance, disengaged any part of his armour, or injured the beast of his adversary.

The formalities of the introduction of a subject to the honour of a knight companion of the Garter have frequently been repeated in our own day; but the circumstances attending the degradation of a knight have not been shewn since the time of the late duke of Ormond, at the beginning of the reign of George I.

The ancient practice was, solemnly to snatch away the sword of the knight, and to chop off his spurs (the chief ensigns of his honour): his coat of arms was then torn from his body, and another was substituted whereon it was reversed: every piece of the armour of the recreant knight was then defaced by public violence.

A knight is not now to be disgraced unless according to the second article of the regulations of king Henry VIII. he be found guilty of heresy, treason, or flight in battle.

The sovereign, on this awful occasion, acquaints the knights companions with the heinous crime: he commands Garter (principal king at arms) to attend some of them in the presence of the convict knight, who first deprive him of his George and ribbon, and then of his garter: the publication of his crimes and degradation is now made, and a warrant is issued for taking down his achievements.

On the morning of this duty, Garter in his coat of arms (in the presence of the black rod, and of the officers of arms) reads the instrument for publishing the knight's degradation: when Garter pronounces these words, "Be expelled and put from among the arms," a herald appointed for the purpose takes the crest, the banner, and the sword, and throws them into the choir: the achievements are then hurled into the body of the church; first the sword, then the banner, and last of all the crest; in this order they are spurned through the west door, from thence through the castle gate, and they are then thrown into the fosse.

It is not our intention to give an account of the monuments in the chapel of St. George, or of the distinguished personages to whose honor they were raised, because the catalogue is of easy access; but it will enable the student in antiquities to examine them with more advantage, if we point out the rules established for the interment of knights, when order and the laws of chivalry were strictly observed.

Sovereign princes were represented on their tombs in their armour; with their escutcheons, crowns, crests, supporters, and all other marks of royalty. A victorious knight had his sword raised and naked in his right hand, his shield in the left, and his helmet on his head. Those who died prisoners were without spurs, helmet, or sword.

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Those who died in battle, and were defeated, were represented without their coat over their armour, their sword in the scabbard, the visor up, their hands joined at the breast, and their feet resting on a dead lion.

The son of a governor dying during the siege, was to be shewn in complete armour even if in infancy, and his head was to repose on a helmet.

A gentleman who had devoted the vigour of his life to military duty, and in old age had retired to a monastic institution, appeared over his tomb with the upper part of his effigy in the habit of the order he professed, but with the lower in complete armour.

A knight killed in single combat was honored with complete armour, but his left arm was crossed upon his right, and his battle-axe was not to be in his grasp; his weapons were to be placed by him: on the contrary, the victor was represented with his right arm crossed over the left, armed at all points, and grasping his battle-axe.

But if any person had been accused of treason, murder, rape, or as an incendiary; instead of being honorably interred, he was treated in the vilest manner; his arms were broken; his body was dragged on a hurdle, and cast out to be devoured by the fowls of the air, or suspended upon a gallows to become the permanent object of national detestation.

It is no wonder if the ancient structure was destroyed by Edward's architect, which was not adapted to the reception of the ashes of the honorable dead, or (what is more material) to the comfort of the living. We are as little surprised at the vanity attributed to William de Wyckham on account of the plan of the castle he had designed with so much taste, and executed with so much spirit. It is said that, yielding to this disposition, he occasioned an inscription to be engraven on one of the towers which yet bears his name, consisting of three words: *domus wyckham* and the Latin inscription reads, "This made Wyckham."

It is not uncommon for princes to be disgusted with the reputation their ingenious agents acquire, because self-love would willingly transfer that credit to themselves: but this contracted feeling was wholly inconsistent with the magnanimity of Edward of Windsor; we can never believe he saw with envy the honors his architect deservedly acquired; or that the equivocal meaning of the inscription was employed by Wychard, not only to excuse himself from the charge of vanity, but to assert his pretensions to the virtue of humility more consistent with his sacred duties and character.

A short examination of the history of castles in England to the time of Edward III. will give us an opportunity of comparing the ancient structure of Windsor with the improvements the place received from the wisdom and vigour of Wyckham's mind.

03. With the feudal government castles were introduced into Europe, and on the extinction of that system they were left to ruin and desolation.

Steeps, morasses, and woods, were the only fortresses of the ancient Britons; the Saxons and Danes were unacquainted with their use; their bodies formed the hardy rampart they presented to their enemies; it was to the Norman and his feudal lords we are indebted for our acquaintance with this species of architecture.

The history of England abundantly shows the general hostility prevailing in the kingdom, when subsequent to that period the powerful baron could immure himself within his fortress, and return defiance to the mandate of his sovereign: the narrative of Stephen's reign is replete with the miseries consequent on this lordly independence: in his time it is computed eleven hundred castles were distributed through the territory of England, and if the apportionment of authority had been equally dis-

vided, it would have given to each castle a domain of ten miles on every side beyond its moat.

The mode of defence was by missile weapons, by ignited materials hurled on the besiegers, and by nocturnal sallies or open attack, according to the strength of the garrison.

The offence was conducted by various expedients; the catus, the sui, and the battering ram were employed; sometimes wooden towers of three stories were erected to raise the archers above the elevation of the ramparts; mines were dug, lines of circumvallation and contravallation were drawn, the ballista, the catapult, and the war wolf were employed; and to bring the account down to Edward's time, in the protracted siege of Calais, the works were so extensive and the labourers so numerous, a complete town was built, market days were established, and a system of extensive and powerful attack was by these facilities adopted, which placed that important key of France for the two succeeding centuries in the hands of the English monarchs.

By the remains to be seen of Norman castles, we may judge of the rude and massive structure of the old castle of Windsor; the ruins of Kendal, Knaresborough, Harewood, and Pontefract castles, and the present more perfect condition of Skipton, Cawder, and Glamys, (which were imitated from the Normans) shew the deformity and inconvenience of the fortresses erected at that time. If constructed with adequate security, they necessarily consisted of seven principal parts: of the barbican, ditch, of the wall of the outer ballium, and of the inner ballium, of the two ballias, and of the tower prison or inmost building, which was called the keep. What we have already said of the new castle of Windsor, implies that the edifice by Edward III. did not constitute a regular fortification, composed of all the parts necessary to security; the fact is, that in his time castles were found to be no longer tenable against regular attack; before the invention of gunpowder, the fortifications of the capital of the eastern empire defended it from the Goths, who feebly insulted its ramparts during the slow progress of five centuries; but in the year 1280 Roger Bacon unfortunately discovered a new means of human destruction, which began to be understood and applied in Edward's reign, and was found to be superior to the resources of the military architect in that time.

The construction of the old castle was not only unsuitable to the elegance of Edward's mind, but to the improved state of building in his reign: before the year 1100 the walls of buildings were thick, no buttresses were seen, the apertures were either filamentary or the arches were semicircular and supported by clumsy pillars: after that date the Norman and Saxo-Gothic began to appear, and about half a century prior to the accession of Edward, the Gothic was in its highest perfection.

In Grecian architecture every thing is simple, the proportions are so just, and the ornaments so sparing, that nothing of itself appears grand and beautiful, although the whole be eminently so; the Gothic after Edward's time was in the opposite extreme, every thing was formed for separate examination, light, delicate, and rich; windows, crosses, figures, are crowded in every direction, and huge superstructures are raised on slender pillars, which appear liable to yield to the pressure of an infant: the Abbies of Glastonbury and Fountain, the Cathedrals of York, Westminster, and Salisbury, and on a smaller scale the Chapel of Saint George at Windsor, if not precisely of the same date, are beautiful specimens of this kind of architecture.

The ecclesiastic de Wyckham knew these improvements were adopted in the most splendid monasteries of the kingdom; it is not therefore astonishing he should think the palace of William and his son Henry, unfitted to the more polished times of Edward's government.

Wyckham

Windsor Castle.

Wyckham too was acquainted with the prince's character. Edward had risen terrible in arms, the consolation of his friends and the dread of his enemies in the open plains of battle; he could not submit to be confined within the circuit of his ballium to protect his person; he had obtained the love and admiration of his subjects by the urbanity of his deportment, the wisdom of his councils, and the splendour of his victories; he was the father of his people, and feared neither private treachery nor public rebellion from the children of his bosom.

We are not only led to be inquisitive into the character of the royal patron, but some little curiosity is excited with respect to the architect of a building which displayed more human industry in a short space of time than any other in the land.

William of Wyckham was the son of John Perrot, and takes his name, according to frequent custom in his time, from Wyckham in Hampshire, the place of his nativity. From the poverty of his father, William Wedal defrayed the charges of his education at Winchester and Oxford; on his withdrawing from the university he lived in the house of his friend; his abilities for active life made him prefer the attendance on a splendid and enterprising court to the calm occupations of the cloister. Edward III. discovered this feature in his character, and not only raised him to dignity in his sacred profession, but to civil and political rank as Secretary of State and Lord Privy Seal, and the first exercise of authority of Richard II. was the appointment of this ecclesiastic to the rank of Lord High Chancellor of England.

Wyckham was a man of great adroitness in business, but of so little erudition, that when he was proposed for the episcopal rank, he was represented to his sovereign as unfit to become a dignitary of the church, on account of his ignorance of the subjects connected with its duties. The prelate seems to have been sensible of this defect: "If," said he, "I be not learned myself, I will at least be the patron and protector of learning." The merit of this ingenuous reply must impress every candid mind. Edward had experienced the active talents of Wyckham, and would not listen to fastidious objectors. Wyckham he knew possessed abilities of a much higher class than the unproductive erudition of the hermitage and the monastery. If the legends of his own order and the attainments of his own profession were little suited to his taste, yet Wyckham respected those who had devoted themselves to the study of the sciences; and at Winchester and Oxford, where he had himself received instruction, he founded colleges for public improvement; the former was assigned to early education, and the latter to the more abstruse and higher departments of literature; thus providing for the cultivation of the mind in every season of its progress from infancy to manhood. He lived long enough to see all the distresses in which Richard involved himself and his country: at the age of fourscore he died, three years after the accession of the house of Lancaster, and about two after the murder of the grandson of his royal friend in the castle of Pontefract.

Soon after the decease of Edward III. England became a scene of civil war to the time of Henry VII. our princes, in consequence, had few opportunities of enjoying this favorite residence of their august predecessor; but that splendour which had been introduced into the royal establishment for great political purposes, was perverted by his immediate successor to the utmost reach of prodigality, for the gratification of puerile vanity and useless ostentation: the extensive accommodations Edward had provided were devoted to minions and favorites; large sums were extorted under false pretences to supply the demands of kingly extravagance; the royal purveyors exhausted the public market; and the

thousand idle and hungry suitors were maintained within the precincts of the household.

The improvements in commerce under Edward IV. increased the wealth and the resources of the country: the triumph he obtained over his enemies, and the regular administration of the laws under the auspices of Sir John Littleton, afforded a convenient opportunity of improving his place of retirement at Windsor castle, of which he did not fail to avail himself: his principal attention was directed to the enlargement of St. George's chapel.

A short time after the death of Edward IV., the exclusive claims of the house of York and Plantagenet were silenced for ever in the field of Bosworth, and the earl of Richmond ascended the throne under the title of Henry VII. The alterations the castle had undergone we have seen increased its internal beauty and interior convenience, but they diminished in the same proportion its strength as an imperial fortress. During the contests of the houses of York and Lancaster, and the troublesome times immediately preceding them, the castle, at the distance of four and twenty miles from the capital, was considered not sufficiently secure for the mansion of the prince; the Tower of London was therefore preferred in that sanguinary period.

At the conclusion of the fifteenth century, the danger of the royal person was no longer apprehended from public hostility, and the institution of the yeomen of the guard was considered sufficient to protect it from private perfidy. Henry VII. thus placed in security, compensated for the neglect to which the castle had been exposed during the war of the roses, and added a stately building adjoining to his apartments in the upper ward: in this reign the roof of St. George's chapel was also completed under the direction of Sir Reginald Bray. King Henry VIII. built the great gate at the entrance of the lower ward.

Edward VI. began the work for the conveyance of water from Winkfield into a fountain in the middle of the upper ward, but this design was not completed until the reign of Mary.

In young Edward's time the enormous power of the duke of Somerset, Lord Protector, excited general discontent: this nobleman in the year 1549, in order to defend himself from the attempts of his enemies, withdrew with the king into Windsor castle, where he surrounded the prince with his own creatures, and, if fame speak truly, attempted to poison his mind with opinions dangerous to himself and his people. Under these circumstances, a council of state was held in London, and by its appointment Sir Anthony Wingfield, Sir Anthony St. Leiger, and Sir John Williams proceeded to the palace of Windsor, where they put under arrest Smith the protector's secretary, and four of his principal assistants; and, according to the directions they had received, watched the motions of the duke lest he should effect his escape.

It would be deviating from our subject to enter into the general objections to the protector's conduct, but there are two articles which are immediately connected with our enquiry. The building of Somerset-house was charged to him as a crime; it was said he was raising a palace more stately than the royal residence, and that he was building it at the expence and on the ruins of the monastic foundations. With respect to the last, it is true that the little ceremony with which Roman Catholic institutions were treated at that time, did occasion the parish church in the Strand, and the houses of the bishops of Worcester, Litchfield, and Landaff to be razed to supply him with materials; and these not being found sufficient, the same destruction was directed against a cloyster, two chapels, and a charnel house at St. Paul's, and against most part of the church of St. John of Jerusalem, Smithfield. With regard to the comparative state of
magnificence

magnificence of Somerset-house with the favorite royal residence, it must be allowed that a palace erected in a great capital and a country fortress admit no fair competition, but if the state be estimated by the labor and magnificence of the undertaking, the inferiority of that of the protector is most obvious: yet if its magnificence be determined by the elegance of the style of architecture, the lord protector's was in some respects superior: the fact is, the Italians had just begun to introduce the Athenian style; and the protector, sensible of its exquisite beauties, employed a person skilled in the architecture of that country to facilitate its introduction into his own: but the attempt was made with all those imperfections that usually attend early experiments, the architect forgot the majestic ruins of the Augustan age, and blended his edifice with the modern Gothicisms.

The castle of Windsor had in former times been employed to protect the royal person from the enemies of the existing government. Somerset at this time used it not to prevent the access of the enemies of the prince, but the approach of his friends: the king, it appeared, was under very indecent circumstances hurried down to Windsor, all communication with his council was interrupted, and in consequence of the alarm this excited in the young monarch, a dangerous disease was introduced which was exhibited against the duke of Somerset on the 14th October, as the tenth article of accusation drawn up by the privy council. With the merits of Somerset, and the legality of his sentence, we have at present no concern. Burnet and Rapin both seem involved in contradictions; whatever were his motives, he was acquitted of the treasonable part of the charge, and dying with the heroism christianity is calculated to inspire, he was borne to the grave with the regret of his country.

The beautiful terrace and rampart to the north of the castle, constructed by Elizabeth, command Eton college, and the luxuriant shores of the Thames: it was here that princess delighted to indulge in the pleasures of solitude, and to contemplate the enjoyment and the opulence the wisdom of her reign had diffused over the land so happily depicted in the rich scenery around her; it was also here that Charles I. under very different sensations, was enclosed a prisoner, and was insulted by his guards where his predecessors had received the adulation of their subjects. When this prince built the gate at the east end of the terrace, he little expected that the military on duty beneath its pediment would be employed to prevent his escape, not to preserve his sacred person inviolate.

The circumstances preparatory to the confinement of Charles in Windsor castle have been less attended to by his biographers than the subject seems to deserve. We shall give some particulars, as they are connected with our historical view of the castle. At the end of the year 1647 he was a prisoner at Hampton court, in the old palace presented by Cardinal Wolsey to Henry VIII.; the loyalty of Major Huntingdon acquainted him with the danger of his situation, and in consequence he was hourly in fear of being assassinated: flight seemed the only means of preservation, and he was determined to adopt it. The king therefore, on a night appointed, affected to be indisposed, and withdrew very early to his chamber. There was a private passage from the king's room into the garden; he descended the back stairs about one in the morning, and was received by Ashburnham and Legg, with whom he proceeded to the garden gate, where Berkley attended with four horses. They rode all night with great speed, to clear themselves of the quarters of the army, and to escape pursuers: the king's flight was discovered, and the treading of horses was traced at the door of the garden; he had however got the start of his enemies; morning approached, when he and his three attendants found themselves advantageously concealed in the wilds of New Forest, Hampshire.

It had been agreed that a ship should be prepared on the coast to receive

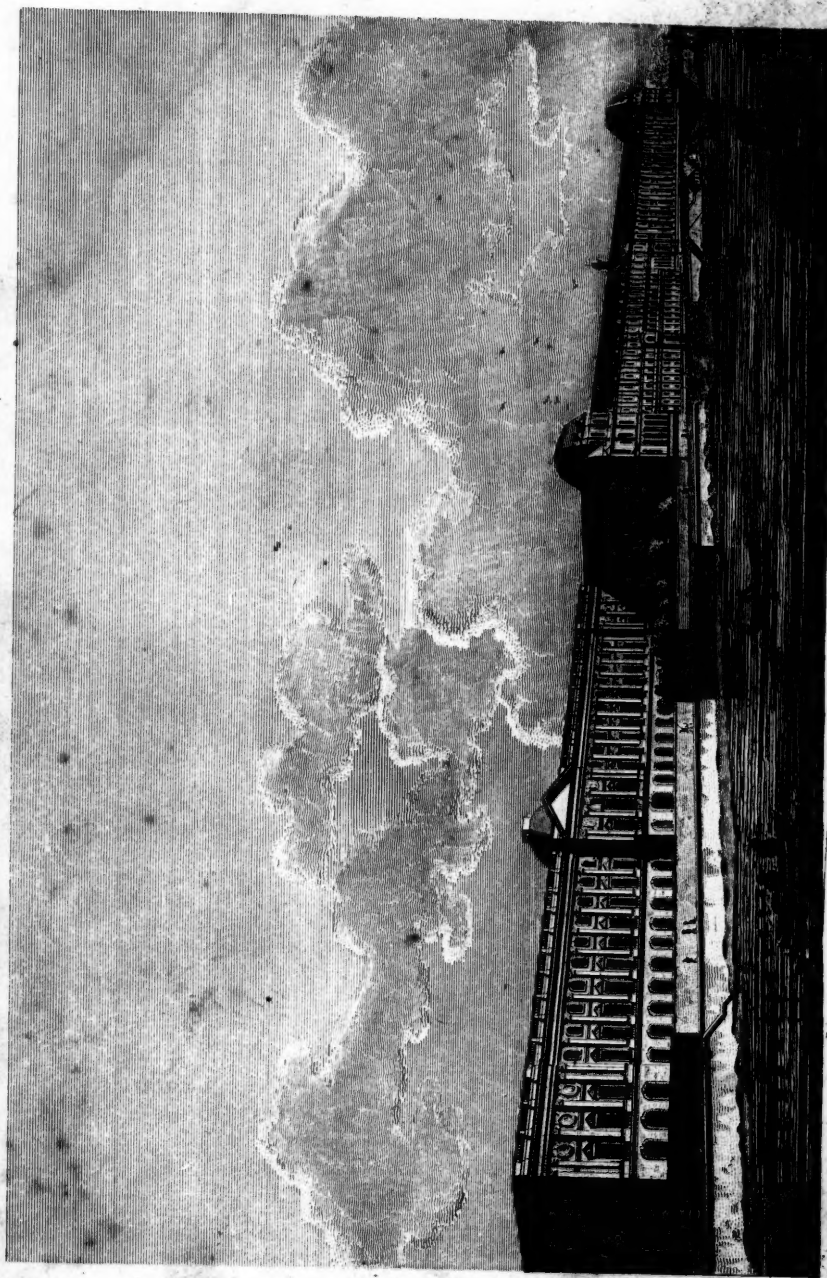
the king, in which he should proceed to Jersey: Ashburnham was his confidant, and betrayed his royal master. At day-break he was dispatched to the coast to bring news where the ship lay at anchor, the king hiding himself meanwhile in the recesses of the forest. The perfidious agent returned with no intelligence of the ship. The king had undergone great corporeal fatigue; the perturbation of his mind on this disappointment added to the former, must have nearly exhausted him; of this moment of imbecility Ashburnham seems to have availed himself; Charles, in consequence, committed his person into the hands of Hammond, governor of the Isle of Wight, a dependant on Cromwell, but a man of honour.

Before the king would set foot on the island, he sent for the governor Hammond was on horseback when the messenger came, and he was so astonished at the indiscretion of the king, that he grew pale, trembled, and could scarcely support himself on his saddle. Ashburnham was employed on this occasion to demand of the governor to promise the king liberty on the island. This honest officer would not inveigle Charles by the sacrifice of his own integrity, but encountered the dangerous duty his situation required. Before Charles resigned his fate into the hands of Hammond, the governor committed his own fate to the mercy of Charles: he proceeded, unattended by any of his suite, to the house where the king waited the return of the messenger; on colonel Hammond's arrival, Ashburnham acquainted his master with the circumstance, and that the Governor would not plight his faith as was expected. "O Jack thou hast undone me!" instantly exclaimed Charles. The tears of hypocrisy flowed abundantly down the cheek of Ashburnham. "Hammond is now in your Majesty's power," said he. "I will go down and kill him."

The humanity of the king revolted at this proposal; he however sent for Hammond to persuade him, but the governor was inflexible: at length Charles, respecting integrity even in the person of an enemy, committed himself into the colonel's hands, and he was conducted to Carisbrook castle, where he was received with all demonstrations of respect. But the generous governor, the husband of Hampden's daughter, was no fit instrument for Cromwell's purpose; on the 3d of December, therefore, Charles was removed to Hurst castle, contrary to the wishes of parliament.

During this time the king kept up a correspondence with Lord Newburg, who occupied the lodge of the royal park at Bagshot. The latter contrived to acquaint his majesty with the design to remove him to Windsor, and the lodge being in the direct road, it was proposed he should take refreshment at Bagshot, and be there provided with one of the fleetest horses in England to effect his escape. Colonel Harrison was soon afterwards commanded to guard the king from the coast to Windsor castle: his Majesty, agreeably to Lord Newburg's plan, complained that his horse was very uneasy to him, and managed so well that the attending officer assented to his dining with that nobleman: a fresh disappointment here awaited him: he was told the horse he so much depended on had received a violent contusion. Charles now resigned himself to his fate, and was conveyed to Windsor; Hampton palace being no longer considered a place of sufficient security. But this was not all; on his arrival his faithful domestics were dismissed, the regal ceremonies were ordered to be withdrawn, and in the palace of his ancestors he was imprisoned; and treated with the indignity of a captive in a public jail. This scene of humiliation was introductory to the fatal catastrophe, and under these derogatory circumstances, on January 16, 1649, he quitted Windsor castle.

We shall conclude this architectural and historical view with a few short topographical observations.



J. B. H. sc.

LOUVRE.

The castle, in its present state, consists of two courts or wards, which are separated by a large round tower, called the middle ward, which had formerly a strong wall and a draw-bridge, communicating with what is called the lower ward. The site of the castle occupies about twelve acres. It is situated on a high hill, and on the declivity is raised the principal walk of the terrace, secured by a rampart of freestone. The upper court consists of a spacious and regular square, having to the north the royal apartments, and the chapel and hall of Saint George; to the south and east are also royal apartments, and those of the prince of Wales and great officers of state. In the centre of the area is an equestrian statue, in copper, of Charles II. placed on a marble pedestal. The round tower is on the west side; it is erected on the highest part of the mount, and contains the apartments of the governor. The lower court is larger than the former, and is intersected by the chapel of Saint George. In this part are several towers, occupied by officers of the crown and of the order of the garter. The entrance to the royal apartments, or war building, was through a vestibule supported by columns of the Ionic order, now converted into a magnificent Gothic entrance and stair-case, leading to the apartments designed for the residence of his present Majesty.

In the explanations we have given in the preceding account, we have mentioned the Chapel of Saint George and the general state of this fortress so frequently, that to avoid repetition, we must here close our observations.

We have endeavoured to give in our plate the most accurate representation of this castle: it exhibits the north front inclining a little to the east, and comprises the Star building, the Gallery, what is called Blenheim Tower, from the banner of the duke of Marlborough, and the Round Tower, the place of residence of the governor, as seen from the Little Park. His present Majesty coinciding with the sentiments of his august predecessors on the English throne, has projected a variety of improvements, both in the architecture of the interior, and even of the grand north facade. Perhaps the view our artist has taken of the edifice is one of the most interesting; but this view was now more especially desirable, in order to perpetuate the original structure previous to the alterations it will be subjected to under the direction of Mr. James Wyatt, surveyor-general of his Majesty's works.

The star building is in some particulars the most incongruous with the general structure of any other part of the edifice: to restore this to purity and uniformity, is the object of the proposed alterations; and we have no doubt, from the hands to which it is committed, that it will be executed with taste and splendour.

Since the interregnum the greatest embellishments the castle has received have been from Charles II. and from his present Majesty; and these have been so numerous and so extensive in the interior of the building, that it would urge us much beyond the limits to which we are prescribed, if we were on this occasion to descend to the particulars. Perhaps, in a future Number, we may submit a separate article on this subject to the notice of our readers, and we trust that a description so nearly connected with the rise, progress and ultimate improvement of the fine arts in our own country, will not be unacceptable.

Historical and Architectural View of the Louvre.

THE Louvre is the most magnificent structure of France, and it has long enjoyed one peculiar privilege; instead of being applied to the purposes of personal ambition, or to the intrigues of ecclesiastic politicians, it has for centuries been devoted to the culture of those arts which improve the heart and refine the manner. The antiquarian has in vain en-
deavoured

deavoured to discover the founder of this edifice. Du Boulay, on the weak authority of some pretended letters of Dagobert the First, has attributed its origin to the royal line of Merovæus; others less jealous of its antiquity, on a similar epistolary evidence, (not equally questionable) have assigned this honor to Charles the Bald, who terminated his protracted reign A. D. 877. A quotation from Rigord is given to bring the undertaking much nearer our own time: he accurately asserts that the large tower of the Louvre was built by Philip Augustus; but the doubt yet remains to be resolved, if the large tower were the commencement of the building, or merely an addition made to a former structure. The name will assist us very little in ascertaining its date: it is said to be derived from Loup, Wolf (*Lupus*) and hence it is conjectured, that as the Princes of France were extravagantly fond of hunting this sagacious but destructive animal, the building contained a sort of establishment for their accommodation in the pursuit of the amusement.

Such is the opinion of Brice, of the learned authors of the *Encyclopædia*, and of most of the French archæologists: but in a modern publication we have met with a suggestion on this subject so easy and natural, that although we know not the authority by which it is supported, we cannot reject it. The derivation of the term is here said to be from *œuvre*, with the article making *l'œuvre*: the large proportion of the population of Paris employed on this vast edifice might very probably assign to it the name of *l'œuvre*, as the great work to which the public industry was applied: this supposition is favored by the ancient orthography of the word, which with the article was *l'œuvre*; if we suppress the second letter of the diphthong, and exchange the antepenult into *v*, according to the modern French, we have the word *l'ouvre* precisely agreeing with the appellation.

We have looked into the history of Gallic architecture for satisfaction on this subject. Charlemagne, the most accomplished and fortunate prince of his age, in the midst of enterprise and victory cultivated this art: his feeble successors were involved in confusion, and were prevented from completing the designs of interior improvement by the incursions of the Normans, the incroachments of the nobility, the avarice of the clergy, and the establishment of the feudal system. The art again revived on the accession of Hugh Capet, the founder of the third race of the kings of France, in the conclusion of the tenth century. The gross ignorance and immorality that prevailed in church and state, and the general relaxation of public manners, did not prevent his son Robert from extending the fostering hand to this infant art, and by these repeated exertions, elegance and splendour gradually succeeded to the gloomy, the rude, and the ponderous.

Francis the First (the patron of all the fine arts) could not consign to neglect architecture, so conducive to the refinement of his people, and to the glory of his country.

Prior to the invention of printing, the history of every art is intimately connected with the biography of the potentates who promoted its success; but since that period it is not merely a detail of characters, who by the accident of situation were empowered to employ the treasures of a nation to the purposes of their own pride, but it is the history of the human mind, of the laborious student, whose talents and whose powers are unfolded in retirement and obscurity. The French writers however who have distinguished themselves in architecture, from the revival of letters to the reign of Lewis XV, are few in number, and give us no assistance in discovering the antiquity of the Louvre. Among the more excellent we may class the antiquary Philibert de Lorme, who, in conjunction with Jean Bulan, laid the foundation of the palace of the Tuilleries in 1564, and three years afterwards published nine books on architecture.

At the distance of a century he was followed by R. Freart, who drew the admired parallel between ancient and modern edifices. In 1681 appeared the *Cours d'Architecture* by Daviler, from the authority of Barroze de Vignola; and seventeen years posterior to this date, F. R. Blondel delivered a course of lectures to the Royal Academy of painting, compiled from the best writers on the orders; which probably contributed more extensively to the success of the art, than the labors of any other student of his time, if we except Claude Perrault. This last united his strength to that of Philander Barbaro, and Salmasius, in the laborious undertaking to methodise the prolix works of Vitruvius, whose studies alone remain to us of the numerous architects that contributed to the ornament of the Augustan age; a period not more celebrated for its historians, its orators, and its poets, than for the sublime monuments of this art, the envy of succeeding ages, more beautiful in ruin and desolation than the most magnificent structures of modern times. Great is the ambiguity in which the foundation of the Louvre is involved, whether we consult the history of the sovereigns of France, or the discussions of her artists. We shall with less difficulty narrate its progress, and the anecdotes with which it is connected since the accession of Philip Augustus, when we are no longer resigned to the legends of the monk, and the conjectures of the antiquary.

Whatever uncertainty may involve this structure, there is not the smallest doubt but that Philip the Second built that part of it which was called the *Grosse Tour du Louvre*. Two fortifications of this kind placed opposite to each other defended the river Seine in this situation; the one was that we have just noticed, the other was called the *Nesle*. During this reign Ferraud, Count of Flanders, a feudatory of the kingdom, revolted from his prince; he was defeated, taken prisoner, and immured within this tower as the place of the greatest security. Otho the Fourth, in alliance with this Count, and his co-vassal the Count of Boulogne, formed a league against Philip. Between Lisle and Tournay stands a small village named Bouvines: here the hostile armies of the allies and of Philip encountered in the year 1215; the number of the former is reported to have amounted to one hundred thousand combatants, of the latter only to half that number. The heavy cavalry of Philip decided the victory in his favour; two bishops served in the French king's army; the bishop of Senlis even ranged the troops in the order of battle: the bishop of Beauvais hurried amidst the ranks, not armed with steel, but with a club, urging that to spill human blood was inconsistent with his sacred character. This signal victory rendered Philip as famous in the conduct of war, as he was before considered in the arts of peace, and in the intrigues of negotiation; he was himself thrown from his horse, and preserved only by the temper of his coat of mail: the emperor Otho was taken prisoner, but rescued by the valour of his friends; the counts of Flanders and Boulogne were seized in the hour of battle, but were not so fortunate in their escape. These princes were loaded with disgraceful chains in the savage spirit of the times; and Ferraud was shut up in this dungeon on the shores of the Seine, in the capital where his family had so lately ruled with kingly authority, if not with the regal title.

The strength of this tower occasioned it, during the reigns of several succeeding princes, to be made the depôt of their wealth. The building is at this day distinguished by the appellations of the old and new Louvre; what remains of the former was founded by Francis First, and at the same time the ancient tower was pulled down. During the reign of this prince, and even much later, learning was confined to the monastic institutions; almost all the Gothic edifices we admire were planned by the superiors, and executed principally by the numerous dependants of the convents; these

these holy architects were employed by Francis; the plans of the Italian Sebastian Serlio were rejected, and those of Clagny the Abbot were adopted: the carved ornaments so much admired, were from the chisel of John Gougeon. But notwithstanding the improvements the structure at this period received, they conducted in a very small proportion to its regularity and magnificence. Henry the Second supplied this deficiency, and however insignificant the Louvre may appear when compared with the more modern improvements, in the sixteenth century it was no unworthy specimen of the dignity of the art. In this state it consisted of three stages, the projections were adorned with columns, and the windows of the second order were much admired by the curious.

Lewis XIII, assisted by James Mercier erected the pavilion to the south: this work was performed in the beginning of the seventeenth century, but the prince himself had little concern in the operations of his long reign; they were all conducted under the sole direction of a successful and intelligent priest, who introduced absolute government into France, and laid the foundation of the future grandeur of her monarchs.

The pavilion has a square dome: this form is both unusual and elegant; the Jesuits church in the Rue St. Antoine at Paris, is surmounted by a polygonic dome: these deviations are unjustifiable in the artist, and not warranted by any of the splendid remains of antiquity. The pediment of the pavilion is likewise objectionable: the Cariatæ support three pediments, two interior inclosed within the exterior: we know no dignified building where this defect is carried so far; in the façade of the church of the Great Jesus at Rome, a lesser pediment is introduced within the tympanum of a larger; the repetition is an abuse of the art. It is true, modern architects have taken great liberties with this part of their buildings; they have sometimes even made them round, but no instance occurs in the antique to justify it, excepting in the chapels of the Rotunda, where the motive for this form is obvious. The design of the pediment is for shelter, the corruption, therefore, of Michael Angelo, in the cut cornice, is the least pardonable; the architects of the Augustan age were so studious of the simplicity of their pediments, that, according to Vitruvius, they did not consider modillions admissible in this species of superstructure.

It has been observed Cariatæ are here employed: this is an order of columns or pilasters under the figure of women: although it varies from the general simplicity of the ancients, it is found in several of their buildings; perhaps the most striking instance of this deviation from the precise rule occurs in the Athenian temple of Erictheus: it must be false in art, because it is a departure from nature: females are not formed to sustain loads: to support baskets or corbelles of flowers, as with the Canephore or Cistifere is suited to their inclination and their powers. The origin assigned for this practice is singular. The Greeks having taken the city of Caria, led the women into captivity, and to perpetuate their servitude, represented them on their buildings in a state of humiliation and laborious exertion. When the Cariatæ are seen in modern architecture, they are not represented as symbols of slavery, but under the images of Justice, Prudence, Temperance, or Fortitude; and the characters they represent are sometimes elegantly adapted to the design of the edifice: the ancients usually tied their hands, and as they were to do the office of columns by the confinement of their limbs and their garments, they gave them as nearly as possible that appearance: in the hall of the Swiss guards in the Louvre the arms are amputated, but every man of taste will disapprove of such mutilations.

The reign of Lewis the Fourteenth, like that of our third Edward, began in glory and terminated in disgrace. The French monarch was determined to erect a structure which should seem capable of setting at defiance

defiance the dilapidations of time and the mutability of human affairs: he was seconded in this bold design by the great Colbert, who neglected nothing that could contribute to national honour or public utility. With such views he raised the superb façade of the Louvre, which has attracted the attention of Europe, and is the most august monument of talent throughout France. To execute this work, Lewis sent to Rome for Bernini: the sketches drawn by this architect are preserved, but his plan was not adopted. It has been asserted on very disputable authority, that the undertaking was committed to Lewis de Vau of Paris, and after his decease to his pupil Francis d'Orbac, known by his improvements of the Tuilleries. We are not surprised at the competition for the honor of this performance; but we are solicitous the merit should be ascribed to the right artist. Claude Perrault, (the brother of Charles the Poet,) by the indiscreet warmth of Boileau Despreaux, had the misfortune to see his name introduced into the celebrated controversy of the comparative merit of the ancients and moderns, which has in France occasioned almost as much clamour, if not as much carnage, as the Guelfs and Ghibellines in Italy and Germany. Whether it be on this account that a doubt has been raised, we dare not determine; but we know that, by the most learned men in France, the honour of the design of the façade has been ascribed to Claude Perrault, and even the invention of the machines by which the two stones were conveyed of which the cimaise is formed.

This front is nearly a furlong in length; it consists of one vast polystyle colonnade; it has three projections, one in the centre, and two at the extremes: the former is ornamented with eight coupled columns, and is surmounted with a pediment of singular magnificence, composed of the two stones we have alluded to, each of them being in breadth eight feet, and in length fifty-two. This façade is to the east: above the first tier is a grand system of Corinthian columns with correspondent pilasters. No description can afford ideas approaching to the magnificent effect of this effort of the art. Mercier, in his observations on the Louvre, introduced into the *Tableau de Paris*, has shewn more spleen than discernment. "The Louvre," he says, "seems condemned to remain for ever incomplete. It is the destiny of this superb building to be an eternal monument before the eyes of Europe of the disgrace of the French people." What he considers derogatory to the French, others have acknowledged to be their highest ornament: motives of local policy, the erection of a superb palace in the vicinity of Paris, and, above all, the deranged state of the finances of France during more than a century, have been not only an apology, but a vindication of the contrary direction given to the application of the public treasure.

"This edifice," continues Mercier, "is a compound of grandeur and misery, fitly represented by the contrast between its sublime façade and the herd of brokers and rag dealers who hold their public market beneath its columns."

We are sorry these bearded brokers and mendicant dealers should have given so much offence to Mr. Mercier's taste for the *haut ton* and *bel usage*; but such offensive people have been found necessary dependants on a great capital, and they no more interfere with the dignity of the Louvre than the vermin crawling below the base of Mount Jura intercept the view of its magnitude and sublimity.

As Mercier's work has received some attention abroad, we will copy from it a sentence or two which relates to the interior of the Louvre, and the bye laws to which it is subject.

"Some academicians and some other persons live here; but they find it necessary to build a species of independent dwelling within the

"enormous inclosures. These dwellings, which are let out to hire, are extremely inconvenient, and in every respect, especially the staircases; incongruous with the majesty of the structure."

"Many painters of the academy have here apartments for the practice of their art, and a multitude of rats for the companions of their studies."

"If any person die in an apartment of the Louvre, the solemn ceremonies are to be dispensed with: no sable banners, not a yard of black, are to be exhibited; the body is to be removed without being examined by the anxious relative, and no indication of respect or domestic grief is to sadden these festive walls."

Those who take pleasure in such remarks are perfectly welcome to our trouble in translating them; in our opinion they partake of a *petitesse* and insignificance which the sublime peristyle of the Louvre is not calculated to produce. On their colonnades the ancients bestowed their greatest skill in architecture. If M. Mercier were indisposed to contemplate the sublime remains of antiquity, the Doric polystyle of the palace of St. Peter at Rome, or the Ionic colonnade no further off than the little park at Versailles, would have afforded him subjects of disquisition much more appropriate than those he has chosen to select; for our parts, comparing the new Louvre with the beautiful and colossal remains of antiquity, we see so much to admire, and so little to reprehend, that we shall not stoop to the minutiae of affected and censorious criticism.

M. Mercier has, we hope, concluded his short desultory account of this edifice with a false prophecy: "The Louvre," he says, "is destined to display to future ages laborious trifling and mutilated splendour."

In all the confusion of civil and external war, the French people have never neglected the protection of the fine arts: wherever their armies have been victorious, (in imitation of an illustrious prince of their monarchy,) they have never waged war with science; their object has uniformly been, in the classic countries where their banners have been unfurled, to preserve and to collect the monuments of talent, and to transport them to their own country, that Paris, and that the Louvre might become the emporium of all the arts useful and ornamental to man. The return of peace will give to this ingenious people the opportunity of fulfilling the great design; and, as they have now leisure to attend to the subject, we cannot conclude this article better than by pointing out some of the late defects in the conduct of the French connoisseurs, not to excite disapprobation, but to produce improvement.

The portico of Athens erected for the people, that of Pompey raised merely for magnificence, and all those most celebrated in antiquity, were ornamented with statues, with the exception of the Atrium of Solomon's temple. Among other reasons for the introduction of this exquisite ornament, we may assign the preservation of the works of art, which in this situation are protected from rude accidents, and from the solvent power of water, so destructive to the material of which they are composed. The *Res de Chaussée*, or ground part of the Louvre, should be altered so as to be accommodated to this purpose. Many curious statues at present in the unfrequented garden are greatly injured in inclement seasons, and by intersections from chemical affinity: all these might be advantageously placed in this new work, and the utility might be yet further extended by being made the receptacle for the best statues of the country.

No very considerable changes would be necessary to restore the south side to a condition fit to receive the paintings of the late royal collection, and others that have become public property.

The opposite side is calculated to form the gallery of plans: several other parts of the building are well adapted to the cabinets of natural history and of medals.

As the success of the arts very much depends on the accommodation of the artist, commodious apartments should be provided for these contributors to national utility and happiness, and not only the students in all the fine arts, but the professors, (who by intense application have obtained that talent which is the prize of their labours) should assemble here to discuss the annals of science, and to suggest the means of proclaiming and perpetuating the improvement of the arts.

It is of less consequence, but certainly not wholly immaterial, that the ground on the side of St. Germain l'Auxerrois should be cleared, to exhibit the grand colonnade to more advantage. We are aware that in a great city devoted to public commerce and private convenience, it is extremely difficult to give that space and aspect to a public edifice which the artist would require, to exhibit the result of his labours: but although a city cannot be laid waste to indulge his wishes, yet a well-regulated police will prevent needless encroachment on these monuments of genius and of national honour and prosperity.

It is perhaps proper to give some description of the Plate which has been prepared to illustrate this article of our Magazine. It exhibits the front of the Louvre towards the river Seine, to the right is a part of the grand façade, and to the left what is called the gallery of the Louvre, an irregular piece of architecture of more than five hundred English yards in length, and which extends to the pavilion of the Tuilleries, now occupied by the Chief Consul. One arch of the Pont Royal is also introduced. In this engraving we have not been able to include the whole of the colonnade of Lewis XIV.; but had we solely applied our attention to that part of the building, we must have given a very imperfect sketch of the general structure. It is not improbable that at a future time we may supply this deficiency which has unavoidably arisen from our desire to give the leading character of the whole edifice.

In this short account of the Louvre we have avoided noticing the works of art which have been deposited there, as they have already been examined by men of taste who have communicated their observations to the public, and as they are inserted in every manual. The collection of the Louvre is now daily receiving accessions, and the celebrated Maria Cosway is at this time engaged in taking copies from the paintings. When the modern improvements are completed, it will be a proper time to submit the whole to public attention.

Among the advantages that resulted from the construction of the colonnade of the Louvre, we should mention the taste it infused into the French artists for the Grecian and Roman orders. What has been inaccurately called the Arabesque, and more properly the modern Gothic style, continued without any rival to the commencement of the sixteenth century. In the elegant court of Leo the tenth, the antique began to find some advocates, and Italy in consequence took the lead in its revival. Perhaps with the exception of the old Somerset-house, we have had in England no striking specimen in that class until the time of Inigo Jones, who died in the middle of the seventeenth century. The French were probably a little before us in this important improvement. Who can contemplate with patience the clustered column, the massive buttress, the slender pinnacle, and the profusion of incongruous ornament, which are characteristic of Gothic architecture, that is acquainted with the simple and majestic of the Grecian style? But notwithstanding these powerful attractions, before its final establishment in Europe it had many enemies to encounter: among these were local prejudice, and national pride; we

had new orders forced on the ancient, and the fleur de lis and the lion disgraced the capital of the Corinthian column, and gave the name of the French and Spanish to two new orders of architecture. Taste has triumphed over partial jealousies, and the delicate foliage of the Corinthian capital is restored. Science is of no nation; she has descended from heaven, to become the friend of human beings in every region of the globe; she is honourable every where, honorary no where: her laws are distinctive of no sect, faction, or country, but are the sublime, universal institutions of nature, and belong to the great family of Man.

Strictures on the Ancient and Modern State of Amiens.

THIS city has lately been distinguished by a treaty perhaps of the greatest importance in the annals of mankind, and therefore some little account of its origin and present situation may not be uninteresting to our readers.

Amiens is the capital of the province lately called Picardy, in France; which was originally a part of the Belgica Secunda of ancient Gaul. The city is surrounded by the river Somme, which was by the Romans called Samara, and the southern shore was inhabited by the Britanni: proceeding a little further into the interior along the banks, we come to the clan classically called Ambiani, by whose name this city was originally distinguished, and from hence the term Amiens.

The town however had in former times another name Samarobiva, from the river on which it is seated. Cæsar in his second book *De Bello Gallico*, states the number of the Ambiani at ten thousand, and in giving an account of his progress in Gaul, he represents their easy submission to his power with all their property—"ab eo loco in fines Ambianorum (Cæsar) pervenit qui se suaque omnia sine morâ dederunt," so contrary to the spirit of the Nervii their hardy neighbours. The Ambiani however in some degree recovered their character in the sequel of his history. Picardy is said to derive its name from the passionate disposition of the inhabitants, (Picardie piquer) or from the ancient war pike, (pique) which they are said first to have employed. The province is called the granary of France; from the great abundance of its produce, and the rivers Oise, Somme, Canche, and Authie greatly contribute to its luxuriance. Three branches of the river Somme enter the city of Amiens, over each of which a bridge is thrown: it lies in the direct road from Calais to the capital. In 1597 Hernando Teller Portocarrero, governor of Doullens, took Amiens by this stratagem: "Soldiers disguised like peasants, conducted a cart loaded with nuts, and let a bag of them fall just as the gate was opened; and while the guard was busy in gathering up the nuts, the Spaniards entered and became masters of the town." The following year Henry IV. of France began to feel the serious inconvenience to which this capture exposed him, for the Spaniards were now empowered to make excursions to the very gates of Paris; he therefore resolved at any rate to recover the place, and formed the siege. About the end of May he applied to Elizabeth to co-operate with four thousand men in this arduous undertaking, but that princess declined acceding to his proposals: Henry however persevered, and Amiens surrendered the ensuing September.

The town in its present state is a respectable one for a provincial capital: it contains some good squares, and some handsome palaces, particularly in the streets which were called St. Len Dominicaïna, Sainte Marie, and St. Denis. The cathedral church of the Virgin Mary is one of the best in point of size and decoration in the whole republic. There are three designs in the

nave, which represent the triumph of the Virgin in white marble finely executed. The nave itself is the largest, and more beautifully paved than any other in France: it is in length two hundred and thirteen paces, which exceeds by forty three paces the cathedral of Notre Dame at Paris. They preserve here a relic which they call the head of John the Baptist; it was found at the taking of Constantinople in 1204, by a gentleman of the province, who presented it to this cathedral. The citadel was built by Henry IV.; and although in the sixteenth century this species of architecture was much less understood than it has since been under the auspices of Vauban and others, it is yet considered one of the best and most regular throughout Europe. The palace of the province, and l'Hotel de Ville, should not pass without being mentioned in our notice of the place.

Amiens has five gates; that of St. Peter is near the citadel, where it opens to the chemin de Doullens, so called from the incident we have alluded to; from thence to the gate of Noyon, the ramparts afford an agreeable walk shaded by rows of elm trees. It is on this side that the river Somme enters the city beneath the three bridges of Celestius, of Barabat, and of Chances. These channels after having watered the several parts of the town, and supplied the manufactories, reunite at the bridge of St. Michael, where there is a quay for the craft which come from Abbeville laden by the shipping at that town. At the port of Noyon is a suburb, where we observe the abbey of St. Acheul.

The manufactures of Amiens are at this time less interesting, on account of the considerable alterations the trade of the city has undergone from the effects of the late revolution: it was, however, a great mart for linen and woollen; and *Amiens*, a term of distinction well known in the Yorkshire manufactures, was applied to a successful imitation of a branch of the latter trade in this city. The number of inhabitants has been estimated at thirty-five thousand.

We have before mentioned the conciliatory spirit of the inhabitants of Amiens in Cæsar's time. The recent treaty at the city was not the only occasion on which this disposition was manifested by the courts of England and France on the same ground, in which also all the allies of the respective governments were indiscriminately included; and this peace, which was one of the most permanent in the diplomatic history of the two governments, we hope will be imitated by the more modern one.

The peace we have alluded to was in 1475, under Edward IV. This prince had made an imprudent expedition to France. Lewis XI. conducted himself with great temper and policy on the occasion: he commissioned a person of considerable ability to go to the English quarters, and for this purpose dressed him up in the masquerade of a herald. The manner in which the messenger performed this duty shews the wisdom of Lewis in his nomination. The pretended herald was honourably received, complimented with a present, preliminaries were agreed, and plenipotentiaries appointed. John lord Howard was principal of the commissioners for England; the Bastard of Bourbon, admiral of France, was the chief on the opposite side. The hostile armies were drawn up at a small distance from Amiens; the commissioners of each party advanced from the front ranks, and met on the ground assigned, between the two military bodies.

Under the pretence of more effectually binding this contract, the wily Lewis proposed a personal interview with the English king; but the secret object was to detach the latter from his alliance with the dukes of Burgundy and Bretagne. The spot agreed on was Pequigny-bridge, and the precaution necessary at such an interview, strongly marks the perfidy and barbarity of the times. A grate was placed to prevent the near approach of the two princes. The king of France, attended by the cardinal of Bourbon and five other lords, here waited the arrival of Edward with a few of his

nobility. Lewis was perfectly acquainted with the amorous disposition of the young monarch, and, to allure him to his political schemes, invited Edward to Paris, described the beauties of his court, and promised him the surrender of their charms; intimating, at the same time, that if he chanced to trespass on the bounds of chastity, the attending cardinal would be his confessor, and could easily absolve him at his own pleasure. Edward did not accept the invitation of Lewis, but engaged himself in the same irregular indulgences in his own capital which he had resigned at Paris, although he had not this accommodating cardinal at his elbow to administer to him Christian absolution. The measures of courts are often inexplicable to the historian, from a want of sufficient attention to the local and temporary interests of individuals. The war of Edward IV. was commenced under no public and popular claim, but simply to supply the coffers of the monarch; and accordingly we find the whole treaty subservient to this design, resembling the treaty of Estates, as an expedient between the two princes to impoverish the people for private emolument. We have mentioned one point in which the treaty of the fifteenth and the nineteenth centuries coincide; but in other particulars the resemblance is not preserved; however idle and destructive the expedition, the former was in a high degree gratifying to English pride; the tyrannical, the insidious Lewis was constrained to bend to the superior fortunes of Edward, and the fourth article of that treaty is a standing monument of political disgrace, for by the conditions that monarch condescends to become tributary to the English crown. If the present peace be not a glorious one, we have no hesitation in acknowledging it to be a wise one. The power of Edward when he attacked France had risen to its highest elevation: Lewis was yet struggling with a factious nobility. The vindication of the present peace is found in the comparative situation of France and England at the present day.

Present State of Austria.

IT has very frequently been affirmed by modern politicians, that by the celebrated treaty of Campo Formio the house of Austria has been deprived of the rank it formerly maintained in Europe, among the powers which are diplomatically distinguished as of the first order. Probably to prevent an opinion so derogatory to the illustrious successors of Charles V. the Baron de Lichtenstern has published at Vienna in a concise form a statistical account of Austria, in which he has entered into a vindication of its high pretensions, not by pompous declamations on the genealogy of its princes, on its obsolete rights, and on the unwieldy magnitude of the Germanic body, but by a simple view of the extent of the hereditary states, of their luxuriance and natural productions, of their mines, their arts, their industry, their commerce, and their population, which will have a much more powerful effect in counteracting public prejudice, than the idle verbosity of the imperial civilian.

The population of this monarchy, including Venice, amounts to 25,850,000; which affords for every square geographical mile 2,154 inhabitants.

The number of people in the provinces is extremely irregular; the proportion is ascertained as follows:

In Hungary Croatia and Slavonia (to each square mile)	1,894
Transylvania (including the frontier troops)	1,794
Galicia	2,055
Austria Proper	2,044
Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia	2,990

Military bodies and persons attached to military institutions
are stated at 800,000
Persons

Persons employed in agriculture	10,800,000
German subjects	6,360,000
Slaves	12,300,000
Italian subjects exclusive of Venetians	200,000
Wallachians	700,000

The larger towns are estimated at 10,200

The smaller towns 2,000

Villages 60,000

The next article is a curious item connected with literary history, which we do not recollect to have seen introduced into any other census since the invention of the art, by which society have been molested with a new class of sedentary mendicants.

Authors are computed at 900 : of which 180 are foreigners, and 720 Germans. In this singular catalogue appear four princes, twenty one counts, thirty five barons, and squadrons of chevaliers and inferior nobility.

It appears that in Bohemia the cultivation of letters is most successful.

The extent of the Austrian states cultivated is 6,625 square miles

Foundations of buildings, roads, rivers, and one third part uncultivated 3,975

The 6,625 square miles cultivated produced in 1789 in grain, wood, cattle, &c. florins 360,000,000

Of the surface of ground cultivated, one sixth part consists of forests, and of this sixth part one fifth is marshy or unproductive. In the meadow and forest land there is great room for improvement.

Hungary annually produces marks 160,000

Copper throughout the monarchy is annually cwt. 60,000

Istria yields annually quicksilver 5,000

Salt throughout the empire annually 3,600,000

The whole value of all the metals, salts, combustible materials, and minerals, amounts annually to florins 47,000,000

But of this account two thirds are absorbed in the expences attending them.

The author next descants on the manufactures of the imperial domain, which have been greatly discouraged, and the means of their improvement he explains.

The total annual export is florins 21,000,000

The total import 22,500,000

In this estimate the excess on the disadvantageous side is one million and an half, but this is remedied by the export of two millions and an half; account of the articles imported.

The author computes there are on the coasts maritime vessels 14,000

Of which two thousand four hundred are national property.

Present State of Prussia.

ALBERT of Brandenburg the Teutonic Knight, resigned the habit of his order, and became a convert to the persecuted sect of Luther; he was put under the ban of the empire, condemned by the Imperial Chamber, alternately defeated by Maurice and Brunswick, and at last was driven out of Germany to live and to die in exile. The successors of this fugitive at the beginning of the last century (almost within the memory of the present generation),

generation), by the treaty of Vienna have, like a constellation from the political horizon, attained an exalted rank amongst the European potentates, and have established a kingdom as extensive in its population as the island we inhabit.

The elevation of this power has originated in the wisdom and valour of two illustrious princes; of Frederic William, and of Frederic the Great; their progress to power has sometimes been impeded by the formidable enemies by which they were surrounded. Within a little more than forty years the Russians and Austrians entered Brandenburg, seized upon Berlin, drove the Prussians out of Saxony, and Frederic II. possessing little more of the territory of Europe than the site of his own camp, exclaimed in the language of Francis I. "We have lost all except our honor:" that honor however with which personal valour was so intimately combined, was sufficient to rescue his kingdom from the tremendous dangers which threatened its extinction: and by the treaty of Hubertsburg he was again reinstated on the throne of his father, and it will be found by the statistical extracts with which we shall supply our readers, that Prussia deserves not to be more celebrated for the prowess of her arms, than for the wisdom of her councils, in establishing that order and economy in her interior government, without which the greatest military achievements are but dazzling meteors which impart neither warmth, light, nor consolation.

The French colonies established in the Prussian states

amount to - - - - - souls 14,000

The colony from the Palatinate - - - - - 2,000

The Jews are - - - - - 250,000

The total population of the kingdom is 8,754,541

Of which there are noble families - - - - - 20,000

Of these last in the army are individuals - - - - - 6,000

And immediately employed by the court - - - - - 2,000

The distinction of superior and inferior nobility admitted in Austria is not known in Prussia.

The rapid progress in the increase of the subjects of Prussia from accession of territory and other causes, will be shewn in the following periodical census:

A. D. 1713 - - - - - 1,620,000

1740 - - - - - 2,200,000

1786 - - - - - 5,800,000

1797 - - - - - 8,754,541

The produce of the country is thus given:

Wheat - - - - - Winspels 400,000

Rye - - - - - 1,800,000

Barley - - - - - 1,100,000

Oats - - - - - 1,200,000

Total produce of grain 4,500,000

Of which there is consumed in the kingdom the following quantities:

Wheat - - - - - Winspels 280,000

Rye - - - - - 1,700,000

Barley - - - - - 1,050,000

Oats - - - - - 1,100,000

Consequently there remains a surplus for exportation in these proportions:

Wheat - - - - - 120,000

Rye - - - - - 100,000

Barley - - - - - 50,000

Oats - - - - - 10,000

Wheat - - - - - 120,000

Rye - - - - - 100,000

Barley - - - - - 50,000

Oats - - - - - 10,000

Wheat - - - - - 120,000

Rye - - - - - 100,000

Barley - - - - - 50,000

Oats - - - - - 10,000

Wheat - - - - - 120,000

Rye - - - - - 100,000

Barley - - - - - 50,000

Oats - - - - - 10,000

Wheat	Winspels	120,000
Rye		100,000
Barley		80,000
Oats		100,000
Total for exportation		400,000

These countries are deficient in culinary vegetables, in fruits, and in wines, The exportation of wood amounts to - - - - - six dollars 1,100,000
Of the horned cattle from the province of East Friseland alone 65,000

The subsequent value of the different species of cattle is stated,
Horned cattle throughout the dominions - - - - - six dollars 4,000,000
Horses - - - - - 1,500,000
Sheep - - - - - 10,000,000

The herring and whale fishery are very productive to Prussia.

The value of the mines has already been estimated, in the memoir published in 1786 by the minister count de Heinir.

The amber is valued annually at - - - - - six dollars 18,000

The coal mines, without reckoning the circle of Suabia, are in number - - - - - 171

There is a greater abundance of salt discovered in Prussia than in all the rest of Europe.

The improvements in the trade and manufactures of the country will be found by this brief comparison.

In 1785 the total produce was - - - - - six dollars 30,250,000

At present they amount to - - - - - 41,000,000

Veterinary Art.

THIS art respects an animal of the first importance in agriculture and commerce, of a nature bold and generous, and of a form exquisitely beautiful: yet all the intricacies of mechanism and organization involved in his system have been consigned into the hands of the most ignorant. Men of talent and erudition, unwilling to sully their pages with the coarse language of the stable, have admitted their fastidious ceremony to prevail over the desire of becoming useful, and in consequence have suffered the delicate organs of this noble beast to be lacerated without mercy.

The scholar too often forgets that in jurisprudence or in pharmacy the terms of art are not less disgusting to the refined ear, than the vulgar slang of the stable; the corrupt Norman, the more barbarous latinity of ancient law, and the jargon of the early pharmacopœia, exhibit specimens of the occasional condescension of these learned professors to every violation of grammar and common sense.

As our leading design is to be understood, we shall without any reluctance avail ourselves of those terms that are familiar in the common intercourse of life; and if in adverting to the osteology, the viscera, or the arterial and muscular systems of the horse we employ unusual terms, we shall only do so where they have no substitute in the stable.

At the Veterinary College great improvements have been made in a short period; the pupils have been admitted gratuitously to attend the lectures of some of the ablest anatomists of the age; and the abilities of Sir George Baker, Mr. Cline, and Mr. Abernethy, have been applied to promote the success of this undertaking: from these exertions the public

have reason to expect a favorable result; and we propose to give in our numbers some account of the progress of the college, as often as any thing occurs in their practice that merits public attention. The art is yet in its infancy; and so destitute of correct knowledge are some of its professors at this day, that the thirteenth edition of the most popular work on the subject, now on our table, treats on the diseases of the *folliculus testis* or gall bladder, when the fact is, there exists no such receptacle in the whole œconomy of the horse.

At this time we shall content ourselves with giving a few observations under the titles distinguished in the succeeding paragraphs, which will include some of the discoveries of the new veterinary school.

Distinction between the Blood Horse and the Cart Horse.

The former is a native of Arabia: it is supposed to be the policy of that country not to permit the export of their best horses, so that however successful we have been from extreme attention to the pedigree, it is very probable we have never had the opportunity of propagating the species from the breed of the greatest celebrity.

The large fleshy powerful draught horse is of English origin, and attains to its highest excellence unquestionably in this country: however great a favorite he be, we will submit to the curious a few particulars, in which the exotic has the decided superiority. The length of their quarters and the width of their chests give the latter not only greater speed, but an increase of strength. The cart horse is full, and porous or spongy in every part of his form; the fibres of which the several parts are composed are loose and irregular, instead of having that solidity and compactness by which the blood horse is distinguished, whose powers are thus increased without adding to his apparent bulk. The vigour and spirit expressed in his countenance are consistent with his priority of rank; even the medullary substance of the brain, the density of the blood vessels, and the proportions of the heart, exhibit in an extraordinary degree his pre-eminence: the heart of Eclipse is said to have weighed fourteen pounds. The situation of the hip bones in the English cart horse is high and wide, in the blood horse it is low and narrow; hence it is concluded that the former has an accession of strength, from the greater room for the muscular parts: a more accurate examination of the animal has shewn that from the rotundity or arch in the make of the blood horse, equal room is given to the muscular system materially concerned in the posterior action. But perhaps the superiority in the conformation of the Arabian, is in no respect more frequently acknowledged, than in the consistence of the foot: it is ascertained that the horny substance of which this part of the animal is composed, is a sort of reticulation of horizontal and perpendicular fibres; these fibres being compact or open, according to the density or laxity of the skin from which they proceed. It will be seen by these remarks, that however fond the distiller, the brewer, the farmer, or the carrier may be of the large gross gigantic animal, it will be wise gradually to introduce a portion of Arabian blood into the breed of this country, whether for draught or for the pannier, for the road, or for the field.

The Road Horse.

Horsemen who wish to be conveyed with the ease of a spring carriage, have not always attended to the peculiar figure of the animal necessary to produce that sort of action: we will endeavour to explain from what source it is now allowed principally to arise. The blade bones connect the limbs by muscles, instead of the usual junction by concavities or sockets; the ease and velocity of the horse depends in a great measure on the free contraction and dilatation of these muscles, so that the animal may proceed without any violent concussion. The rider will immediately perceive

perceive the advantage of this conformation, instead of that adopted in the other parts of the body by ligaments and sockets; if he places his hand for an instant on the croup of the animal while in progression, he will perceive a violent action and reaction greatly opposed to the ease he desires. By this explanation the detriment of the straight upright shoulder, resembling the joints of the perpendicular limbs, will immediately be seen, the most perfect form in other respects will not compensate for a deficiency in this particular. Although this is material for the ease of the rider, it is now generally acknowledged that the swiftness of the animal depends more on the hind quarters than on the forehand: it has been said, that "if the fore quarters move well, the hinder parts must 'unavoidably follow,'" this however is fallacious. Those who have been accustomed to the exercise of the great horse in the riding house, are sufficiently sensible of the strong muscular action between the pillars in raising and launching the posterior limbs: while leaping the bar, the rider and the horse appear at perfect ease, until the latter proceed to the violent effort in elevating his croup, and unless the muscles concerned be powerful, his efforts will be ineffectual, and he must be drawn back over the bar: this comparison of the strength required in the posterior muscles to give swiftness to the horse, will appear perfectly fair when we reflect that galloping is nothing more than leaping on a plain surface, and when the animal is in full speed, the leap is of very considerable extent. The horse Eclipse, so famous for his prodigious velocity, was not well made before, but had his principal strength in the hind quarters; and the seat of muscular force in other animals of extraordinary swiftness, as the hare and the greyhound, is assigned to the same situation by nature, who preserves simplicity and analogy through all her works.

The Horses.

The eye of the human species is furnished with six muscles, but that of the brute creation in general, on account of its prone position, is supplied with a seventh, called the *membrana nictitans*, the use of which is probably to support the organ of vision while the head is inclined downward in feeding. It will scarcely be credited that the ignorance of persons employed for the health and protection of the horse, should have been so gross as to have supposed this membrane to have been an excrescence resulting from some humour or imperfection in the part. The eyes of horses have been more subject to disorders than the human eye, or the eye of any other animal; the principal cause arises from mismanagement, of which perhaps we can give no more striking instance than in the extirpation of this wise provision of nature by violent hands. I shall not venture to say that the first discovery of this membrane in the horse is to be attributed to the Veterinary College, but I will boldly affirm, that if the practical application of this discovery were the only benefit derived from its professors, the public mind would have been amply repaid for all the expence and solicitude attending the institution.

Roarer.

A horse is said to be a roarer, when in a quick pace he emits a hollow sound during the effort of breathing: but if the name and the disease be familiar to all who are acquainted with the animal, the modern reformers have not yet found the immediate cause: it probably will be found to be seated in the trachea; it has hitherto been incurable, and little success is to be expected from further effort, until the source of this species of diseased respiration be ascertained.

Another difficulty which remains to be resolved is the use of the slit in the septum of the nostril: most persons have observed the spirited look produced by the inflation of the nose of the horse; this is owing to that peculiar conformation which occasions the part to continue filled with air until the act of expiration. I have mentioned these obscurities of the art,

because I think it not less serviceable to point out what is yet unexplored, than to give the discoveries already made by the labour and ingenuity of the student. This precaution will shew the boundaries of the art, it will promote modesty in the professor, and it will inform the amateur in physiology on the subjects to which his inquiries may be advantageously directed.

The Foot.

We cannot conclude without noticing the greatest improvement in modern farriery: it is true we are not entirely indebted for it to the late institution, for every follower of the art of the Cyrenæan youth, and every veteran in the sports of the field, has been long acquainted with the fatal consequences of the unskilfulness of the farrier in the treatment of the foot, and has partially removed the evil.

The foot of a colt when accurately observed, is found to consist of the segments of four circles; the periphery of the larger extends round the fore part from the heel on each side; that of the three smaller is formed by the projection of the two heels and the hinder protuberance of the frog; the artificial state of the foot after having been shaped to the taste of the farrier, is very different; it then consists of one segment of a circle, and of the segments of two ovals; the circular part extends round the toe from heel to heel as in the former, and the segments of the ovals are composed of the heels contracted to the form of the narrowest extreme of a hen's egg. In its natural state, the principal breadth of the foot is behind, in the other the forepart occupies a space twice the width of the posterior; in the former, the frog expands boldly beneath the tendon Achilles; in the latter, it is contracted to a very acute angle. Thus by violent hands the beautiful work is reversed; and what is the inevitable consequence? the action of the animal becomes crippled, and he is oppressed with the state of infirmity to which he is reduced: formed by the indulgent hand of nature to tread the slippery path, and to bound over obstructions which would impede his progress, in conscious security; by this profanation of his sacred form, he loses all the dignity and generosity of his temper, all the buoyant spirit of his heart, consequent on the complete exercise of his corporeal energies.

[*To be continued.*]

Duke of Bedford.

Hinc enim orte stirpe antiquissima: hic sacra, hic genus, hic majorum multa vestigia.
CICERO.

THE late marquis of Tavistock fell a sacrifice to the amusements of the field; a fall from his horse occasioned his death: the tender constitution of the marchioness was incapable of encountering the affliction, and she died soon after.

The eldest son of this affectionate pair, the late Francis duke of Bedford, was about four years old when his parents died, and the young marquis succeeded to the title of his grandfather in 1771, when he was in the eighth year of his age. At this early period he thus attained the highest rank; he was placed at the head of an illustrious line, and he was the envied proprietor of inexhaustible treasures.

We all know the evil effects of such a situation; the idolized boy is surrounded by sycophants, and is contemplated by the narrow circle of his friends with apprehension, and by the larger sphere of sharpers with avidity. In this state, to whom could the innocent child look for direction? He had lost his parents: the approach of intimacy was denied by the superiority of his rank; he had indeed a grandmother, who in age and infirmity had all the affection and ardour of youth for the anointed representative of her ancient house.

But

But however amicable her designs, she seems to have adopted a method in the education of her favourite, which was least likely to be attended with success. He was first committed to private tuition in a small academical establishment, from thence he was sent to Westminster, where time was not given him to acquire the introductory elements, before he returned home on some new plan that had become the favorite project of his anxious parent, and thus the head of an honorable family, which for nearly six centuries had occupied a distinguished place in the annals of the country, was subjected to all the disadvantages of feminine imbecility. It is natural to suppose when the duke arrived at the age at which it is customary to close juvenile education by the studies of the university, he was wholly unprepared to act his part on the literary stage; and whatever might be his natural talents, he returned from thence without those acquirements which are considered expedient in his exalted station; he however applied with considerable diligence; he endeavoured to compensate for the loss of time he had sustained, by a degree of application unexpected in a person of his rank, and he gained the love and approbation of his colleagues and instructors.

Hitherto (whatever personal exertions the duke might employ to counteract the mismanagement of his directress) he seems to have laboured under every possible obstruction, and we should have expected him to be ushered into life,

“The slave of pomp, a cypher in the state.”

But we have not described half the difficulties that awaited him.

On his return from college, instead of being placed under the friendly inspection of those, who, by the wisdom of their counsels and the virtues of their example, would induce him to tread the path of science and virtue; he was placed under the “tuition of a nobleman advanced in years, and well known for his knowledge of the world, and his acquaintance with the wiles of gamblers.”

We are surely now ready to consign this hapless youth to perpetual disgrace, and if he attract our pity, it is because his ignominy must be the consequence, not of his own crimes, but of the vice or insanity of those who surround him; but the gulph of perdition seemed to have a cavern yet deeper, into which he must be precipitated. The advantages of foreign travel are often talked of but seldom realized: agreeably to the popular sentiment he was dismissed to distant climes, not to see the benefits of a free government; not to catch the flame of virtuous enthusiasm in those countries, where the sublime altar of liberty is erected, but to the territory of hair-dressers and fiddlers, footmen and secretaries, and what kind hand was to preserve him from the contagion of this corrupt atmosphere? he was accompanied by a lady of incorrect principles, and of fascinating manners, and thrown into society more conducive to debauch and deprave, than to purify and exalt a youth at the most ardent period of life.

When he returned to his native country, every tinelled sharper of the *haut-ton* was expecting to seize on the lawful prey; it was at this time that the strength of the duke of Bedford's character began to be discerned; he triumphed over all the disadvantages of his education, and contrived a plan of life at this early age from which he never deviated in the future years of his existence. These cormorants were disappointed: a new set of sharpers in a political character endeavoured to unite his rank, fortune, and influence to the ministerial stock; they had already obtained the names of his relations, the illustrious families of Marlborough, Dorset, and Stafford, to the contemptible list of court dependants, and they considered it an affair of little difficulty but of great importance, to unite the title of Bedford to this protracted catalogue: all their efforts were vain; he treated their solicitations with contempt, and preserved unsullied his own honor.

There is an insignificant sort of vanity connected with the little exterior circumstances

circumstances of life which descends to the paltry consideration of domestic establishment, liveries and vehicles; however despicable it may appear, the facade of a mansion, the addition of a lacquey, or the gilding of an equipage, occasion a considerable variation in the respect of mankind: it is indeed a very small compliment to the duke of Bedford to say, that he rose superior to these frivolous distinctions, and that a public conveyance or a private hotel were always considered by him as commodious as a couch of state, or the palace of his ancestors. We should enter on an extensive subject, if we were to proceed to the history of the duke of Bedford as a peer and a legislator, when we consider the talent he displayed in this character, the promptitude of his mind, the energies of his intellect, and the torrent of his eloquence, we are almost constrained to think, contrary to all human evidence, that to deliver over a youth to women and sharpeners, is to apply the happiest means of education; and we are tempted to believe that his instructors discerned some peculiarities in his constitution, which justified them in the singular expedients they resorted to for his improvement; for the powers he displayed in his senatorial capacity were beyond all possible calculation: he was not only the first orator of his own rank, but of his own age, in the hereditary council of the land.

The benefits to be derived from political characters and political factions are very doubtful; the most exalted talents and the most virtuous mind may be misled and become pernicious, in proportion to those eminent qualities in the possessor; to his private life, and to the application of his princely fortune the duke of Bedford gave a direction where there was no uncertainty, but which must inevitably promote the comfort and happiness of man; we allude to his enlightened pursuit and munificent encouragement of agriculture in all its relations; and if we do not enlarge on the national advantages derived from his application to this subject, it is because there exists no man in the country who is unacquainted with this honorable part of his character.

The elegant and energetic letter of Junius to his grandaunt, is known to every admirer of the English classics; this writer after decanting on the conduct of that nobleman, points out the line of action which was suited to the dignity of his rank, the splendor of his fortune, and the glory of his name, and we shall submit to our readers the words of the original, to show that the precepts of Junius have been those which have governed the life of the illustrious prince, who is the subject of our observations, and we think we cannot do better than close our account with this quotation, as a line of instruction to his amiable successor, and to every nobleman of exalted rank in the kingdom.

"Conscious of his own weight and importance, his conduct in parliament would be directed by nothing but the constitutional duty of a peer. He would consider himself as the guardian of the laws. Willing to support the just measures of government, but determined to observe the conduct of the minister with suspicion, he would oppose the violence of faction with as much firmness as the encroachments of prerogative. He would be as little capable of bargaining with the minister for places for himself or his dependants, as of descending to mix himself in the intrigues of opposition. Whenever an important question called for his opinion in parliament, he would be heard, by the most profligate minister, with deference and respect. His authority would either sanctify or disgrace the measures of government. The people would look up to him as their protector; and a virtuous prince would have one honest man in his dominions, in whose integrity and judgment he might safely confide.—He would consider the people as his children, and receive a generous heart-felt consolation in the sympathizing tears and blessings of his country."

Lord Kenyon.

IN the list of the preceding month we have to add to the melancholy catalogue of mortality the late Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench, who for fourteen years has discharged, with talents and integrity, the duties of his important station. The place of his nativity is Gredington in the county of Flint, where his father was a magistrate, and resided on his own estate. The expectations of the parent seem not to have been commensurate with the fortunes of the son, who was educated at a little school in Denbighshire, and from thence was removed to the narrow circle of legal duty in the office of a country attorney who resided at Nantwich in Cheshire.

Mr. Kenyon soon learnt to despise the low practice of the rustic courts, and the squabbles of overseers, beadles, and paupers. He felt the strength of his mind and the superiority of his attainments, and came up to the capital, where they might find greater room for exertion: he therefore entered at Lincoln's Inn in Trinity term 1764, and was called to the bar seven years afterwards. He long suffered serious mortifications; his father, no doubt, thought his son Lloyd had over-rated his own talents; and in consequence had given a wrong direction to his line of practice: Lloyd's habits of economy however, we believe, in early life were rigid, and he rose gradually into notice. At this period he had very little employment in the courts: promptitude of invention, unblushing confidence, and rapid volubility, were not in the list of Mr. Kenyon's acquisitions, although greatly conducive to success in public practice. In the branch of conveyancing and chamber practice, which were peculiarly suited to his habits of precision and patient industry, he had made considerable progress, when he became acquainted with Mr. Thurlow. This acquaintance ripened into friendship. Mr. Thurlow was sensible of the merit of Mr. Kenyon, and was convinced of the reliance he could always repose in his judgment. The former soon afterwards became lord chancellor, and Mr. Kenyon pleading at the bar where his friend presided, was listened to with attention, respect, and confidence. His employment now became extremely lucrative; an ample fortune was the reward of his perseverance; and in 1782 he was appointed chief justice of Chester and attorney-general. Sir Lloyd Kenyon now attracted public notice: he was brought into parliament; and if the general history of his legislative conduct be not the most striking part of his character; if he were not remarkable either for brilliant wit or commanding eloquence; at least, in the debates on Mr. Fox's coalition, he took a wise and spirited part, and stood boldly forward to prevent that unnatural and mercenary alliance, where all the dignity of the patriot, all the duties of the senator, and all the interests of the people, where all the feelings of the man and the virtues of the citizen were sacrificed to private emolument. Sir Lloyd Kenyon was appointed master of the rolls in the year 1784. Four years afterwards, the courts of English jurisprudence, in the resignation of lord Mansfield, suffered a loss which can never be repaired. The master of the rolls was in consequence raised to the rank of a peerage; and to the juridical dignity of the venerable earl. Whoever recollects the latter on the seat of justice, the politeness of his manners, the penetration of his judgment, the purity of his heart, and the irresistible powers of his eloquence, must be sensible that the person appointed to succeed him in the same chair would fill it with great disadvantage. Lord Kenyon, although possessing firm integrity and a profound knowledge in his profession, had talents the least suited to be placed in competition with the elegance and refinement of his predecessor. His tone was nasal, his utterance indistinct, and his manners were provincial. All the fascinating condescension of the

earl with his brethren below him disappeared, and an intercourse was introduced between the bar and the bench more resembling that which subsists between a dependant and his lord; than between gentlemen engaged in the same pursuit, and performing the same common duty of rendering justice to their country.

Among the professors are undoubtedly some of the best scholars of our own times. Notwithstanding the trammels in which they are confined by the duties of their station, the style of their latinity is not always regulated by the jargon of the acts and muniments in which they are conversant. Lord Kenyon, too, had contracted a love for the Latin language, but this love was confined to the deformed shapes in which it appears in legal practice: yet now and then he was wanton and capricious, and, in imitation of Plautus and Terence, would indulge himself in classic pleasantry. It is said that on one occasion, when a question appeared to him perfectly clear, he availed himself of his favourite simile of the orb of day, and, to express more strongly the perspicuity of the case, he attached to his illustration the proverbial metaphor "*Latet anguis in herba.*" This unexpected combination, no doubt, excited a little movement in the fraternity not very respectful to the judge: the simplicity and candour of his lordship's mind we are, however, inclined to believe attributed the general smile to the fortunate exercise of his own facetious powers, and the cause proceeded without any interruption excepting from the momentary ebullition of personal vanity.

The discordant phrases introduced into deeds and instruments, considered so luminous in legal practice, were the ordinary style of speaking employed by lord Kenyon; and even in those deviations on the sublime institutes of civil law, in which he occasionally indulged, in illustration of the practice of imperial Rome, he always preserved the technical dialect of the rustic courts, instead of accommodating his language to the enlarged and enlightened principles of civil jurisprudence. Were we required to enumerate those qualities that are of the greatest consequence to the administration of justice in the highest court of law known to the constitution, we should not exclude the perfect command of the angry passions: this, however, his lordship never attained. The irritability of his temper was shewn to every order of the profession and to every attendant on the courts: but, if this precipitate disposition was inconsistent with the dignity of his situation and the decorum he ought to have preserved, it was never exercised to prevent the purposes of substantial justice. His virtuous indignation was strongly excited against vice and immorality, whether practised by the attorneys of his court, or by the highest rank of British nobility; and by the energy with which he has opposed the low artifices of the one, or the loose practices of the other, he has essentially contributed to the increase of public morals and private happiness.

In the time of his august predecessor, the system of commercial law was established which has become the foundation of the interchange of property in this great trading country; some alterations have, however, been introduced by the worthy judge who is the subject of these remarks. The history of commercial law in the time of lord Mansfield and lord Kenyon would afford a stock of information extremely valuable for the illustration of private contract; and we hope at a future time to extract, for the use of our readers, the most prominent articles of the modern system.

As his lordship became a distinguished public character, we perhaps might be excused from a single observation on his private history. Unfortunately the most celebrated actors on the great theatre of life preserve little uniformity behind the scenes, and sometimes the man that receives the admiration of his country deserves the detestation of his family. To the honour of Lord Kenyon, his domestic practice was as respectable as that which attracted such general notoriety. Soon after he began to reap the fruits of his laborious application,

application, which was about twelve years posterior to his being called to the bar, he married Miss Mary Kenyon, the daughter of George Kenyon, esq. of Peele in Lancashire, by whom he had three sons, the eldest of which he lately lost, an event that greatly embittered the latter period of his life. In his family he discharged with fidelity the affectionate duties of a husband and a parent; and if the parsimony attributed to him be a fault, it was promoted by his prudential habits in early life, by his desire to secure the means of credit and independence to his progeny, and by his contempt of parade and ostentation, indicative of fortitude and elevation of mind unusual in those who have been called from the obscurity of private life to situations of the highest dignity.

M. Danville, the Geographer.

WE have thought some account of this celebrated geographer, from an authority which cannot be disputed, would be acceptable to our readers. He was born on the 11th of July 1697, and his taste for the department of science he undertook, shewed itself at a very early period. A very few years after he left college, the desire of consulting his superiors, or perhaps, more correctly, the desire of speaking on the object of his passion to persons capable of comprehending him, made him seek an acquaintance with persons of the most profound erudition. He had the happiness to be admitted to the frequent society of the abbé de Longuerue, whose conversation was to him an inexhaustible source of instruction, and who strengthened his natural taste for ancient geography. The young Danville endeavoured to follow the Phenicians through their extensive voyages, and to unravel all the secrets of their course; to trace them from Necos through the Red Sea, round the coast of Africa, and on their return to Egypt by the Mediterranean, after the incessant labour of three years. He left Carthage with Hanno, and pursued the coast of Africa in the contrary direction to the conclusion of his voyage. He visited with Scyx the establishments on the coasts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. He accompanied Herodotus in his voyages to Greece, Italy, Egypt, and Asia: he penetrated to the Indus with Alexander: he followed the Romans in their conquests, and saw with pleasure their triumph over a world, to the intimate acquaintance with which they introduced him; and he embraced with the affection of a relative Strabo, Mela, Ptolemy, and Pausanias.

But his prepossession for ancient geography was not so extravagant as to preclude his attention to the modern, and to the geography of the middle ages. He had discovered that ancient and modern reciprocally correct each other, and that to advance beyond the celebrated geographers since the revival of letters, it was necessary to examine the world in all the successive ages of its history. Courage the most undaunted, and enthusiasm the most romantic, supported M. Danville in his long and painful researches. The faculty of discriminate criticism enabled him to discover truth where she was involved in uncertainty: in the choice of probabilities he uniformly selected those which stood highest on the scale: in short, a kind of instinct, which is the result of deep reflection and long experience, and which is either the surest indication of genuine talent, or is that talent itself, empowered him to overcome every obstacle. He was very retired in his habits: he might be said to live rather in past times than in the present, and in foreign countries rather than in his own, knowing much less of man than of the surface on which he moves. In his character he had no essential defect: to the qualities which form a great man he united those which constitute a good one. Worn out with age and mental fatigue, he died January 28, 1782.

Darquier, the Astronomer.

SCIENCE has lost a valuable friend by the death of Augustin Darquier of the National Institution. He was born at Thoulouse in 1718, and died at the commencement of the present year. The powers of his mind compensated for the disadvantages he suffered in a situation remote from the capital; and at the age of more than fourscore he seemed to possess all the energies of his early years. At thirty years old he began to attract the notice of astronomers, and for half a century he has been a valuable member of that body. He purchased instruments, he established an observatory in his own house, and he printed at his own expense two volumes of discoveries. His translation of the letters of Lambert on cosmogony were published at Utrecht. He educated students, he paid calculators, and, although his labours were devoted to the public good, he did nothing at the public expense. M. De Lalande published his last observations in his *Histoire Céleste*, page 393: they are brought down to the year 1798, when this veteran in the sciences was at the age of fourscore.

Literary Memoir of Dr. Richard Hurd, Lord Bishop of Worcester.

SIR,

IMPARTIAL criticism and accurate narration constitute the excellence and majesty of biography; a branch of science of equal importance to that of history, and in some respects superior. In the latter, we behold but the profiles of those eminent personages who, in every age of the world, have aggrandized human nature and benefited mankind by their virtues or talents; while, in the former, we have them drawn at length, and perceive "their very form and pressure." But, alas! how is the public taste vitiated by those frothy, incorrect, and wretched compilations which have of late issued from the press! How have the memorials of celebrated characters been debased by the introduction of anecdotes, the effusions of spleen, bigotry, or a rancorous, malicious, intolerant spirit! anecdotes which, if true, delicacy would forbid to make public; but, if false, must ever place the writers in a state of degradation and contempt. Even Johnson could condescend to soil his pen by such improprieties: by reciting the puerilities of Pope, and ridiculing his infirmities, he wounded his own character more than that he attempted to injure; though it was in some degree measuring to Pope* what he had meted out to others.

The prelate whose name is affixed to this memoir has long been distinguished in the republic of letters.

It is honourable for him to recollect that his genius and talents raised him to that high station which for many years he has filled with increasing applause. No servile adulation, no prostitution of talents were the pioneers to his preferment. In a secluded retreat*, he for years performed the duties of a parish priest, nor heaved a sigh for prebendal stalls or lawn sleeves. Mr. Hurd early attached himself to the study of polite

* Mr. Pope was unmeritedly severe on many men of talents and respectability in his *Dunciad*.

literature; and his "Dialogues on Chivalry and Romance" procured him the patronage of that Mæcenas of the age, Ralph Allen, Esq. of Prior Park near Bath. The road to preferment was also smoothed by the zealous and continued friendship of bishop Warburton. Gratitude to his patron has ever characterized bishop Hurd: he has unequivocally demonstrated that he was actuated by no selfish principle in defending his celebrated patron; for since his death he has paid posthumous honours to his memory, and planted many a laurel on his tomb. Yet he has been accused, and by one who is a giant in literature, Dr. Samuel Parr, of intellectual cowardice. The "Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian" contain many severe and apparently ill grounded reflections on his lordship. Mr. Hurd being appointed to preach the Warburtonian lecture at Lincoln's Inn, delivered those admirable discourses on prophecy which established his reputation as a theological writer. Some passages in these sermons were attacked by the Rev. Mr. Evanson of Tewkesbury. The classical erudition of Hurd and the purity of his manners occasioned his appointment to be tutor to the prince of Wales and his brother the bishop of Osnaburg, now duke of York. This honourable situation he soon exchanged for the mitre, being first promoted to the see of Litchfield and Coventry, and afterward to that of Worcester. While his lordship presided over the former diocese, a daring outrage was committed on his person. The mob assembled by lord George Gordon on June 2, 1780, to attend the petition to be presented for the repeal of the popish bill, was peculiarly inveterate against the bishops, whom they accused as abettors of popery †, and therefore denounced exemplary vengeance against them. Dr. Hurd most unfortunately that day came down to the House of Peers, but no sooner had his carriage drawn up and the episcopal arms were discovered, than his lordship was dragged out, had his robes torn off, and he was stripped nearly naked, while his carriage was demolished before his face. With the greatest difficulty did this excellent prelate preserve his life by a precipitate retreat to a neighbouring house, where he found an asylum from the fury of the barbarians who surrounded him. Upon the death of prince Octavius in 1783, Dr. Hurd delivered a most impressive oration on that mournful occasion, at St. George's chapel, Windsor, which deeply affected the royal auditory. The same year, upon the decease of Dr. Cornwallis, archbishop of Canterbury, his Majesty offered the vacant primacy to the bishop of Worcester; but his lordship declined accepting it, alledging, "he was so happy in his diocese, he wished not to change." This is a trait in the bishop's character which will not easily be forgotten.

Besides the sermons on the prophecies, bishop Hurd has published three volumes of miscellaneous discourses of approved excellence; a splendid edition of Warburton's works, with an additional volume, and several other pieces. But the work which has chiefly tended to establish Dr. Hurd's reputation as a polite and elegant writer, is his admirable translation of Horace. By the verdict of the best critics, this translation of Horace is esteemed superior to that of Dr. Francis, or the recent one of W. Boscawen, Esq.

His lordship principally resides at Hartlebury near Worcester.

XIMENES.

* At Thurstaston.

† Only two bishops voted for the repeal of the bill; Dr. Newton, bishop of Bristol, and Dr. Hinchliffe, bishop of Peterborough.

ARTS AND MANUFACTURES.

FAMILY CORN-MILL.

THE first article in the last publication of Mr. Young's *Annals of Agriculture* is a patent hand-stone corn-mill, the invention of Mr. Thomas Wright. It is made of French burr stones 18 inches in diameter, fixed in a frame a yard square; and in the drawer underneath it are sieves to receive and sift the meal.

We have paid particular regard to the construction of this mill, and have attended the agricultural society at Chelmsford and other places, where we have seen it perform the operation for which it is designed. We freely acknowledge the inconvenience attending the use of public mills in the way in which they are at present conducted, and we admit the utility of any discovery which shall enable private families to avoid such an inconvenience; we acknowledge also the ingenuity of Mr. Wright's invention: but there are some impediments to its introduction to general use which it becomes us to notice; because our miscellany is not to be the vehicle of indiscriminate praise, but to point out whatever is necessary for the information of the public; and whenever the private emolument of the individual coincide with this duty, the discharge of it will be much more agreeable to ourselves.

Our objections extend to two particulars—the expense, and the management. The charge, we believe, is about sixteen guineas, exclusively of the sieves; and, notwithstanding what Mr. Wright says of the labour required, we are convinced three bushels per day is full employment for one man. The price of grinding at the mills for this quantity is about one shilling, or one shilling and sixpence: the reader may therefore calculate the difference in the expense. With respect to the skill in managing the mill, those who are accustomed to employ ingenious machinery are aware of the many obstructions to their operation when committed into the hands of domestics, who are unacquainted with the principles on which they work: from this cause many valuable contrivances, which have required a long life to invent, are consigned to rot in the outhouse, and the artisan and his mechanism fall into disrepute. In this machine of Mr. Wright, without some skill in the art of setting the stones, in which the level, distance, and bearing are to be carefully attended to, the mill would be of no use whatever. Mr. Wright will recollect a difficulty of this kind that occurred at Chelmsford, and will do wisely to give a clear explanation on the method to be employed to prevent any mismanagement in this particular.

With these precautions, we recommend Mr. Wright's discovery to the public, and we wish to him every possible success and encouragement.

To give the public an opportunity of comparing the merit, we have extracted from the *Repertory of Arts and Manufactures* the description of a Parish or Family Mill and Bolter for grinding Corn, &c. invented by Mr. Thomas Rustall, wheelwright, Purbrookheath, near Portsmouth, for which he received a premium of forty guineas from the Society of Arts.

“ Its peculiar excellence consists in this circumstance; that, from the vertical position of the stones, action may be given to it without the intervention of cogs or wheels: it may be used to grind malt, to bruise oats for horses, or to make flour, or for all these purposes; and it can easily be altered to grind fine or coarse, as occasion may require.

“ It may be worked by one man; but if two persons are employed, it will furnish, in two hours, a sufficient quantity of flour to serve a family of six or eight persons for a week. The farmer, by allotting half an hour's time in the evening for its use, may make comparative experi-

ments

"ments of the quality of his grain, and, at a trifling expence, provide himself with flour from his own wheat, without fear of sophistication, or being liable to the caprice or defrauds of a miller.

"Repeated satisfactory experiments have been made with this mill before members of the Society; and the original mill is now in their repository, for the inspection of the public.

"A certificate was received with the mill, signed by the minister, churchwarden, &c. of the place, certifying that they had seen the said mill-at work, which grinds corn very well, and at the rate of one bushel of wheat within the hour, by the labour of one man and a boy."

PHANTASMAGORIA.—Among the specifications of patents of the last number of the Repertory of Arts and Manufactures, we notice this patent to Mr. Paul de Philipsthal. The inspection of the specification will shew that the illusions are produced by nothing more than the application of the commonest principles of optics.

Whether these phenomena, known to every youth in the habit of studying mixed mathematics, be a proper subject of a patent for a new invention, may be justly questioned; and the same doubt will occur, how this patent can operate to the exclusion of others, in availing themselves of the mysteria of natural philosophy, for their own emolument, and for the gratification of public curiosity. The motives are plain why the patent was granted on the application of Mr. Philipsthal; but it is not so easy to determine what exclusive advantages Mr. Philipsthal expects to derive, that will be a compensation for the expense he has incurred to obtain what he calls "the most high and gracious protection of his Britannic Majesty."

AGRICULTURE.

BOARD OF AGRICULTURE.

THE third volume consisting of communications to the Board of Agriculture on subjects relative to the husbandry and internal improvement of the country is just published. We understand its appearance was detained a few days, in order that it might be inscribed to the memory of the late duke of Bedford as a testimony of the sincerity with which the members of the society lament the loss of the most judicious and munificent promoter of the national agriculture.

This compliment is the more flattering on account of the difference in political sentiments which subsisted between his Grace and the noble president of the board. In subjects connected with agriculture and the arts, we are happy to see distinguished characters of every party, propose to themselves, but one common object, the general improvement of the country; and we persuade ourselves that under the auspices of lord Carrington, the inferior distinctions of faction, will not be permitted to interfere with the great design to increase private wealth, and public prosperity.

The first six pages of this volume are devoted to the premiums offered by the board for the year 1801; these comprize thirty one articles, by far the greater part of which has already been decided. It perhaps may be right to introduce those which are so decided, but a catalogue of the new premiums which are offered by the society for the future information of the country, would be at least as useful, and would obtain an extensive means of circulation by their introduction into this work. It will appear singular to the casual reader, that the fourteen articles of which this work consists, should be entirely devoted to essays on the subject of converting grass lands into the state of tillage. We are given to understand, that on

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the 16th of December 1800, the board received from the select committee of the House of Lords, a requisition on this subject, and that the society had been so completely controuled by this application from the house of hereditary senators, that it has deemed no other subject, at present, worthy of the public notice.

For the discussion of this question premiums were offered of two hundred pounds, one hundred pounds, sixty pounds, and forty pounds, to be appropriated according to the merit of the candidates; in consequence this volume is divided into two parts, the one consisting of essays from persons who are not candidates for the premiums, and the other from those who are. We confess we had rather this distinction had not been made. The success of the board of agriculture depends more on the little than on the great; it is from the united experience of the inferior orders of the community engaged in the vulgar occupations of life, and not from the speculations of the drawing room, that we are to expect the most useful contributions to farming knowledge. We have seen with pleasure, and contemplate with respect, the labours of this society, which has for its object, not the interest of party, or the clamours of faction, but the substantial improvement of the country, and we should avoid every fastidious objection; but if we see in their general conduct an attachment to distinctions which obstruct the purpose of their undertaking, we think it right to point out this prejudice, to prevent the evil consequences that would arise from it. Considering the information possessed by the board, this volume ought not to have been confined to the single subject suggested by the lords' committee, and we are happy to observe that the essays the board has received from its correspondents are not limited to the simple question, but diverge in various directions, and comprize many objects important to the national agriculture. The correspondents have either seen the folly of this contracted question, or the natural desire of communicating valuable information has prevailed over other considerations.

It is in vain that the board of agriculture interfere to promote tillage, unless it can shew that this sort of culture will redound to the pecuniary advantage of the landlord; and this observation is very fairly made in the eighth essay by the Rev. Arthur Young

“the great mass of landlords pursue their real interests; and when we see them very generally prefer grass to tillage, in every part of the kingdom, and take all fair opportunities of increasing it, whether by inclosure or otherwise, there must be some efficient circumstances which direct them. If these be weighty, and duly considered, neither the wishes of the board, nor the efforts of the legislature, will have any influence in changing their conduct.”

The Rev. H. J. Close in the sixth essay among the obstacles to tillage, first notices tythes, and although we may not think with him, that “our political and religious polity will be more firmly established, or shaken to the very foundation, as this question shall be well or ill conducted,” yet we agree in his candid acknowledgment that tythes operate as a direct tax on the skill and industry of the country; and that in consequence of the increased tythe tillage is constrained to bear, the favourite project of the board is greatly impeded. Mr. Close has not pointed out this obstruction without suggesting a remedy, and it is this: that the tythes of the kingdom be valued and sold, the proprietor of land having the refusal of the tythes of his own property; the money produced by the sale to be vested in the public funds, and the interest applied to the maintenance of the clergy. This he considers more beneficial than the project attributed to the late minister, of substituting lands as a compensation to the clergy in lieu of tythes, which for a variety of reasons he considers would be ruinous to the clergy, and injurious to the state.

The importance of inclosing the open country is now generally admitted, but it has been greatly impeded by the necessity of parliamentary interference; for the counties of Leicester, Northampton, and Lincoln, only four hundred and thirty five acts of parliament were obtained before the year 1797, at a most enormous charge. The reverend gentleman recommends that the decisions on inclosures should with certain modifications be referred to the magistrates at quarter sessions; claims to be decided by a jury in the country courts, and the verdict given at the quarter sessions to be subject to the review of the court of king's bench, where the judgment upon the law should be final.

This expedient might settle the question with respect to the inferior claimants on common lands, but how is the great mass of land proprietors who represent almost the whole wealth of the kingdom, to be satisfied for the loss they conceive themselves to sustain, by the increase of tillage among their tenantry to the destruction of the ancient pastures.

"In Romney Marsh," says Mr. Goring, "there is a sort of land they call pil-rag, which is not estimated at more than half the value of the maiden-land, on account of its having been formerly in tillage."

What is said of that district, is more or less applicable to a very great part of the kingdom, and here it is obvious on the renewal of his leases, the land owner would lose half the produce of the grass land on his estates so converted into tillage.

To this difficulty Mr. Greenall considers the following a sufficient answer, which however, in our mind, leaves so much to the punctuality, care, and knowledge of the tenant, that we believe very few landlords would be justified in exercising this sort of confidence.

"If," says he, "old pastures are broken up, some other land must be laid down for pasture; and the only advantage the tenant can reap from it will be (perhaps) a better crop of corn from the fresh land; and if he lays the land down well that is for pasture, the expence of manuring &c. will be equal to any advantage he will receive from ploughing the other; no increase of rent should take place, but the tenant should buy as much manure for the land laid down into pasture, as the increased value of the crop of corn, which, perhaps, on an average may be 4*l.* per acre, and also to provide all grass seeds at his own expence."

The proposal of the Rev. Arthur Young obviates these objections, which is, "by calculating the produce of the land in question under grass, and then under corn; to allow half that produce for the rent, tythe, and poor-rates of the grass, and one third as the rent-tax of the arable." He adds very properly, "this will not in all cases be exact, or fair, but it is, upon the whole, coming nearer to the truth than any other general rule—easy to be explained."

It is impossible that in a volume of this kind, composed certainly by the talents of some of the most intelligent farmers of this country, whatever be the subject proposed by the board, that of the drill husbandry must unavoidably be introduced. Established law is not more necessary to associated man, than the drill husbandry is to the purposes of agriculture; in the cursory inspection of this volume, we have not seen it treated with that respect it deserves, as being the most effectual means of answering the purposes of the board in the conversion of grass lands to tillage. The reason assigned for the extent of territory in pasture is, because this state of land wears a greater profit than the former; but it is obvious to all who are acquainted with the drill system, that by a proper adaptation of the implements on which it depends, that the produce of corn land would be doubled and trebled, and that thus this impediment would not only be removed, the emolument of the landlord and his tenant would not only be increased, but the country would be rendered independent of foreign supplies, and that unless some terrible calamity were to visit us, there would

be no future cause to apprehend that scarcity, which a short time since made every friend to humanity to tremble.

The ninth essay is from the Rev. Edmund Cartwright, and in the first paragraph he gives with great judgment the true state of the question.

"That farm, it is obvious, is the best managed which yields the greatest produce at the least expence. And it may be laid down as an axiom, that no farm, which has its resource only within itself, can yield the produce that a tillage farm will, on which the crops are so judiciously diversified, as to keep such a stock of cattle as shall supply it with manure. A farm, so conducted, may be made not only to produce plentiful crops of grain, but actually to support as large, and in many cases larger, stocks of cattle, than the same compass of ground would have done, were the whole to have been in grass. And this is the true point of view in which agriculture should be looked at, both by the landlord and tenant; as holding out to the one the prospect of increasing profit; to the other that of an improving income. To this point also, as an object of political economy, should every legislative regulation and encouragement, if they interfere, be directed."

This intelligent agriculturalist very properly opposes an indiscriminate use of the plough. Strong feeding lands should rarely be broken up, the superior kinds of meadow land and marshy tracts, which from their situation do not admit of being easily drained, ought not to be converted into tillage; and some lands are so incorrigible and unproductive, that they will not for a century repay the expense of conversion.

The observations of Mr. Cartwright are principally extended to that sort of strong land which is the least manageable; in light soils the subject is much better understood, this judicious direction given to his remarks, renders his communications to the board more valuable.

As we are now reviewing a book into which we should conceive the highest improvements in agriculture would be introduced, we are astonished to find that the general principles laid down in Mr. Kirwan's pamphlet on manures, and on the general application of chemical art to practical farming should have attracted so little attention. We have frequently observed paring and burning recommended, where this expedient would only serve to reduce the soil to the most harsh and untractable state, which must for years disappoint the labours of the husbandman, until he have buried it in the subsoil, or have at vast expence, carted to the tract a new surface. Paring and burning are of use in peat lands, and in all soils on which a vast quantity of vegetable roots are collected, in such cases the roots are reduced to coal and ashes, and thus both a stimulant and nutriment for the in subsequent produce is prepared.

Likewise in this volume we have occasionally seen an injudicious course of crops recommended. White corn is proposed to succeed in the same soil without intermission; to those who are versed in the subject, the following list, from the 43d page of Mr Kirwan's pamphlet, will shew the inexpediency of that method.

One hundred parts of the lixiviated ashes of contained of Sillex. Calx. Argill.			
Wheat	- - - - - 48pts	- 37	- 15
Oats	- - - - - 68	- 26	- 6
Barley	- - - - - 69	- 16	- 15
Bere	- - - - - 65	- 25	- 10
Rye	- - - - - 63	- 21	- 16

But whatever mistakes may occur of this kind they are compensated by a very excellent table with which the Rev. H. J. Close concludes his letter to the president, that we have thought it right to copy for the use of our readers.

A TABLE

Shewing at one View a Course of Crops adapted to various Soils for any number of Years.

Soil	Turnips or Cabbages	Oats	Beans and Clover	Wheat	Turnips or Cabbages	Oats	Beans and Vetches	Wheat
Clay	Turnips or Cabbages	Oats	Clover	Wheat	Turnips or Cabbages	Barley	Beans	Wheat
Clayey loams	Turnips or Cabbages	Barley	Clover	Wheat	Beans	Barley	Pease	Wheat
Rich loams, or Sandy loams.	Turnips and Potatoes.	Barley	Pease	Wheat	Ad infinitum	Barley	Pease	Wheat
Peat earth	Turnips	Barley	Clover	Wheat	Potatoes	Barley	Pease	Wheat
Chalky substratum.	Turnips	Barley	Clover	Wheat	Potatoes	Barley	Pease	Wheat
Gravels	Turnips	Barley	Clover	Wheat	Potatoes	Barley	Pease	Wheat
Lightlands	Turnips	Barley	Clover and Rye grass	Wheat	Clover and Rye grass	Pease	Wheat or Rye	Wheat

but on this soil ten acres in every hundred should be laid with sainfoin for 8 or 10 years.

This course of husbandry is only recommended on condition that the crops are all hoed well, and kept perfectly clean; and that the turnips, pease, and beans be put in double rows on three feet ridges, and the cabbages in single rows of three feet ridges.

We shall now subjoin some strictures in a paper communicated by Dr. Walker, regius professor of natural history in Edinburgh, to the board, that gives a comparative view of tillage and pasturage as it affects human subsistence, which we acknowledge is new to ourselves, and may be so to some of our readers.

"Many causes have been assigned, and many opposite opinions have been formed concerning the present scarcity of grain in Britain. The causes which have been generally presumed are those of an occasional nature, or such as appear more immediately to have produced this calamity.

"It is not these, but a cause of a more remote kind, which has been but little noticed, that forms the subject of this paper: a cause which highly deserves attention, as it suggests a remedy for the present scarcity, not only

easy and effectual, but expeditious, as the salutary effects of it may be experienced in the course of the present year.

"In hot and in warm countries mankind are disposed to live chiefly on vegetable aliment. The case, however, is different in the more temperate, and in the colder regions of the earth. In such a climate as that of Britain, mankind have a great propensity to prefer animal to vegetable food. This disposition is indeed much restrained, during the early periods of cultivation. But by high improvements of the soil, by the increase of wealth, and by the introduction of luxury, animal food is produced in greater abundance, and is become more accessible to all ranks of men.

"Scotland is a particular and striking instance of this general observation. In former times the inhabitants consumed very little butcher's meat; and lived chiefly on grain, garden-stuff, milk, butter, cheese, eggs, poultry, game, and fish. The cattle which were raised went chiefly to England, and formed the principal article of export, before the union. But since that period, though in consequence of increased cultivation, a much larger quantity of cattle is produced, the exportation has gradually diminished. By the improvements of the soil, by the increase of arts, of manufactures, and of trade, the consumption of flesh meat by the inhabitants is now, perhaps, ten times greater than it was at the end of the last century.

"By this alteration, which has been most remarkable since the year 1750, the quantity of grain raised in Scotland has been greatly lessened. It is now insufficient, even in the best years, to supply the inhabitants; which is evident from the necessary and increased importation. By a greater consumption of meat, we therefore find a remote, a gradual, but a most important cause of the scarcity of grain in the kingdom, for years past, and especially at present.

"By a larger consumption of meat at present, than in former times, not only the produce of grain, but human sustenance in general, is greatly diminished; and this of course must raise the price of all sorts of provisions.

"It may not be improper, to mention one example of this among many which might be adduced;—a comparison between the produce of cattle, and of corn, upon the same land.

"A scots acre of good grass land, worth forty shillings of yearly rent, will support and fatten five of our best sheep from the 1st of May, until the 1st of November. During that time the sheep will increase in weight 6 lbs. a quarter, or 24 lbs. each sheep. The meat therefore produced by this acre, during the season, amounts to 120 pounds. This meat at 6d. per pound yields 3*l.* sterling. The tallow, skin, and offal may give 1*l.* 15*s.* sterling, which form to the grazier a large profit of 2*l.* 15*s.* sterling from the acre.

"Let us next consider the produce of the same land in grain. If the above acre be ploughed and sown with oats, it will afford on an average 10 bolls of that grain, which will yield 1280 pounds of oat-meal; little indeed used and esteemed in other countries; yet, from the experience of ages in Scotland, Ireland, and the north of England, it is questionable if a more wholesome and nutrimental meal can be obtained from any grain whatever.

"It is true indeed, that the landlord as well as the tenant may receive from the above acre, when in pasture, as much profit, (perhaps something more) as by tillage, and with less trouble and risk.

"But the difference which arises to the public, from these two different methods of occupying land, is indeed most surprising. A labourer, a manufacturer, or a mechanic, often consumes at the rate of a pound of meat each day. The 120 pounds of meat, therefore, afforded by the above acre, cannot support such a consumer above one-third of the year. He requires no less than three such acres to supply his wants for the single article of meat

ment. On the other hand, the single acre affording 1280 pounds of eat-meal, is capable of supporting three laborious men in health and vigour; and with less additional sustenance than the former consumer requires.

"The labourer, therefore, who lives chiefly on meat, demands for his support about nine times the quantity of land that is necessary for the sustenance of a labourer who lives chiefly on grain."

We will return to the Rev. Arthur Young's essay, for the sake of making one remark on threshing mills. If an increased quantity of land be thrown into tillage, it has hitherto been necessary for the purposes of the tenant, that a great extension of the buildings on the farm should be made for housing and preparing the produce for market; and this very serious burden will in the usual course of things devolve on the landlord. Where the farms are accommodated with threshing mills, all the out-buildings necessary are "stack stables to receive the corn, and a very slight shed to "cover the machine, with a repository for the grain, and another for the "chaff; the expence of the whole not amounting to the half of that of a "moderate barn."

We have endeavoured to notice whatever is most new and valuable in this work as far as our limits will admit us to proceed; but we must refer the agricultural student to the volume itself, which we venture to recommend to him as the best production on the same subject in the English language.

LAND BORER.—The fifty third article in the *Repertory*, is the description of a new invented augre or peat borer, by Mr. Eccleston. The reason we mention it here is because it is one of the most useful discoveries in agriculture of the present times, and although the board and Sir John Sinclair have paid great attention to diffuse the knowledge of it, it is notwithstanding an instrument very little known. A great part of England yet lies in the state of morass. In the time of the ancient Britons, Cæsar complained of the opposition he received in his invasion of this country, from the extensive bogs through which our forefathers waded to escape the pursuit of the enemy. By the little attention that is paid to the improvement of the miry unproductive land in many parts of the island, we should be inclined to suspect some veneration was yet retained for these boggy retreats; if this be the case, we sincerely hope this pernicious sort of superstition may quickly vanish, and we know no instrument more useful to assist the country in this branch of improvement, than the augre invented by this ingenious gentleman.

DRILLING TURNIP SEED.—The next article in the *Repertory* is the description of an instrument for this purpose, invented by Mr. Knight of Eton, for which he received the silver medal from the Society of Arts. None of the drills hitherto contrived have been adapted to the small seeds of clover, lucern, turnips, carrots, &c. the difficulty of sowing them on the large scale is now by this contrivance removed, and we hope the discovery will contribute to the increase of cultivation in these important articles of produce.

THE Society of Agriculture for the department of the Seine at the two last meetings, have taken into their serious consideration the necessity of making that art the subject of public instruction, instead of leaving information on this important enquiry to loose and irregular experiment.

It is said that this art is beyond the reach of regular instruction, that practice is the only master to which it will submit. Exactly the same objection may be raised to the theory of surgery, pharmacy, and to every practical art. But is it necessary to reduce it to mere speculation? Are not experimental farms established; and is not a whole country a great theatre of experiment to illustrate the theory of the art?

There are periods in history which shine with brilliancy, during which the historian exults when he records the great public ostensible acts, but for which he blushes when he reverts to the decrease of internal happiness: such is the fact with respect to the time of Lewis XIV.; during that reign the population of the country diminished rapidly, and the produce of the lands lessened one third. Amid the blaze of victory and triumph, the abbé St. Pierre perceived reduction in the public prosperity; Vauban, Fenelon, and the Abbé, were the only men of all the literati of France, who pleaded the deserted cause of agriculture. The first was not understood, and the two last were persecuted.

The society of the Seine are not satisfied that this important art on which human subsistence depends, should be left merely to private tuition; they require that it should be made an essential article of public instruction.

We have yet to learn in what this grand system of public instruction will terminate, which has been the favorite project of all the successive leaders of France since the commencement of the revolution: we dare not anticipate what will be its fate under a republican government, but we know that in the monarchical states with which the history of Europe is conversant, these establishments are generally commenced by men of talents, industry, and of disinterested principle, but conclude in idleness, ignorance, and avarice; they begin with the most free and benevolent designs, and end in the most slavish and mercenary, in pensions, places, and court influence, in the most humiliating form.

The society make some observations on the attempt to establish agriculture in France.

The wise schemes of Sully were never executed; the plans of Turgot for this purpose vanished in an instant, and only served to shew this truth, how difficult it is to retain the situation of minister, and to discharge its genuine duties.

Towards the close of the reign of Lewis XV. some societies of agriculture were established, which published a few good papers, excited emulation, exhibited useful examples, and held up a beneficial object for the employment of the public mind.

This is all that has been done in France since the time of Henry IV.

But it has not been so far neglected in other countries.

In Germany and Switzerland rural economy has been made the subject of general tuition. At the commencement of the eighteenth century, Frederic established professors in the art in the universities of Halle, and of Frankfort on the Oder. Sweden and Denmark followed the example, and even adopted the plan with more spirit: they instituted seminaries, where the priests, destined to country cures, were obliged to study physics, medicine, and agriculture. In these also teachers of schools were required to attend, that they might give information on such important subjects in the provinces where they resided, and they were not permitted to practice as instructors until they had passed their regular terms, and submitted to an examination of their ability to discharge the duties of their station. The same institutions we find in Hanover, in Saxony, and in Moravia.

In the year 1778 a reform was made in the schools of Hesse for the promotion of this art, and similar means have been employed by the duke of Saxe, Weimar.

It is not that the French have made no attempts to succeed, but it is that these have been feeble, tardy, and successively disappointed. Richlieu shewed his profound knowledge of the French character, when he exclaimed, "It is most unseasonable to expect of this people the completion of any thing which requires ten years to execute."

The reporter of the society passes in review the French writings on rural economy. He discovers few good works, but many valuable and enlightened

enlightened ideas. Planting the uncultivated tracts, raising an immense forest where the horrors of a vast desert were alone presented, and the establishment of rustic schools were suggested by M. Miger as early as the year 1769. The young trees might be furnished from the national nurseries; instructor and students might labor in the plantations, and extensive benefits would be derived from a very trifling expence. Two or three holidays in the months favorable to these operations would be sufficient for the purpose, if schools were established and the exertion general. The reporter concludes with a handsome compliment to the English people for their attention to agriculture.

PHILOSOPHICAL PAPERS.

NATURAL HISTORY.

IN the great variety of objects connected with natural history which engaged the comprehensive mind of Linnæus, it was impossible for human powers to establish classifications in every department that would receive the perfect concurrence of succeeding inquirers. His vegetable system, founded on the most curious investigation, has been continued with very little change, and is received in all the universities of Europe of considerable repute. His animal system has not, however, sustained the ordeal of modern ingenuity: in some respects it is defective, in others redundant; the leading distinctions of the classes are sometimes directed to parts not sufficiently determinate; the orders interfere by too near an approach, and the genera cannot always be referred with adequate precision to the arrangement. The use of classification is to enable the student to place any natural object in such a nominal situation, that however new or rare the specimen, by the mere position to which it is referred, its characteristics may be known equally to the naturalist amid the snows of Kamtskatka or on the burning sands of Ethiopia. In the Zoology of Linnæus this end has not been always attained; but by the resources of his capacious mind he has so successfully unfolded the laws to which nature adheres, that his successors have been enabled to pursue his steps, and to open new paths of science, without meeting those impediments that would otherwise have interrupted their progress.

All naturalists are acquainted with the vast improvements made in the class of entomology by the French writers. Their climate is much more suited to these inquiries than the northern regions; but it would be unfair to attribute their success merely to felicity of situation; they deserve the highest encomiums for the patience with which they have examined, and for the ardour with which they have pursued, these minute and fleeting subjects.

We have at this time to regret the decease of M. G. de Tigny, one of the greatest ornaments of the institution devoted to natural history in Paris. He was stopped in the midst of his career, surrounded by the companions of his labours; and a valuable work, in which he was endeavouring to combine the various systems of Réaumur, Geoffroy de Géer, Linnæus, and Fabricius, was left unfinished: it has, however, been continued by professor Alexander Brogniart; and we know no way in which we can render a more essential service to this department of science, than by giving some account of this ingenious production: for it is by such men alone that natural history can be rescued from the degradation to which it is reduced by the frivolity and vanity of English artists, who, contenting themselves with giving a superficial view of the colour and

outline

outline of the animal, neglect to investigate his anatomical structure, the mechanism of his powers, the peculiarities of his organization, and the history of his habitudes.

The preliminary discourse immediately enters on some of these important divisions; through which I shall follow the author in the pleasing track he has pursued, avoiding as much as possible in my elucidations the learned mysteries introduced into the language of this science by the Greek etymologists.

The body of almost every insect may be properly considered as composed of three principal parts: the anterior is the head, the middle the thorax, and the posterior the abdomen. The last is commonly the largest, and is frequently decorated with many distinct circles. The head may be divided into the mouth, the eyes, and the antennæ or feelers.

The masticatory organs are much varied in different insects. Those that are nourished by solids are supplied with a species of nippers, with which they bruise or grind their food; and they are more or less powerful for these purposes according to the solidity of the aliment required for their support. Those to which liquids are natural are provided with a tube, varying extensively in its form: sometimes it resembles a horn, with two extremes rolled up in a spiral form, as in the butterfly: sometimes the tube is sharp, stiff, and bent towards the thorax, as with the chermes or bug: sometimes it is fleshy, and ending with two moveable lips, or perhaps a sucker composed of many delicate fibres enclosed in a soft sheath; in this case it is furnished with two valves: with these the fly, the oestras, and the gnat are provided.

The author proceeds to examine all the peculiarities of the head in this class of animals, to whatever order the respective genera may be referred: he then descends to the thorax and the abdomen; and concludes his elucidations on the exterior parts with the consideration of the legs and wings, or members.

The legs sometimes are in number many hundred, but never diminished below six. They are composed of articule; pieces which may familiarly be named the thigh, the leg, and the foot: the latter has commonly at its extreme two or four nails, of different degrees of strength.

On the number, transparency, and solidity of the wings, the author, following Linneus, founds the basis of his classification. They are distinguished either as membranous, opaque, or horny; and they are always seen attached to the lower part of the thorax.

After this dissertation, the author proceeds to the vital functions, in which he enters profoundly into comparative anatomy, explaining them by the assistance of those of the larger animals, and describing the organs substituted in the minute objects of his inquiry.

He first speaks of voluntary motion.

The bones and the muscles by which it is performed are with insects reversed in their situation. In other animals, the bones are in the interior part; with insects, the crustaceous skin, which supplies the place of ossification, is exterior, and covers the body and its members. This honey or crustaceous part possesses underneath it recesses or cavities, which receive the muscles to perform the duty of voluntary motion.

The muscles are very numerous: Lyonnet has distinguished no less a number than 4041 in a single caterpillar, when perhaps the human frame is not supplied with more than 529.

Insects have often a prodigious velocity in their motion. Nature has sometimes increased this by a species of membranous legs, by protuberances formed with glutinous matter, (as with the larvæ) and by a variety of expedients peculiar to certain insects. Of this kind is what the podura

are supplied with beneath the abdomen, which enables them when they extend their form to vault to a considerable distance.

The organs of sensation are less unfolded with insects than with other animals. The cerebrum is small, and placed above the œsophagus: it is doubly ramified, and embraces the stomach, uniting below it. From this is produced a nervous cord of a milky colour, which extends the whole length of the abdominal part of the insect, exhibiting twelve or thirteen knots or receptacles, which have been considered as so many distinct cerebra. On minute examination we find these receptacles send forth many very delicate filaments, which, in fact, belong to the nervous system, and are diffused over the several parts of the body of the animal. It is to the extensive distribution of the medullary substance of the brain through these channels, that the prolongation of life in a variety of insects after decapitation is to be attributed.

The eyes of insects are immovable. They are of two kinds; the one plain on the surface, the other reticulated. The structure of the latter is among the most wonderful operations of nature: each separate division is an inverted hexagonal pyramid, and is the transparent cornea of a distinct eye. The eyes plain on the surface resemble little round brilliant spots, and are placed in various ways in the head: sometimes there are only two, sometimes they increase to eight in number.

The sense of taste insects possess in an eminent degree; but that of the touch is the least perfect. The ossified substance we have explained on the exterior will sufficiently account for their insensibility in this corporeal faculty.

The organs of respiration in no respect resemble the lungs of other animals. Insects do not breathe through the mouth: apertures giving admission to the air appear on different parts of the body; these apertures are called stigmata. By them the air is introduced into two channels, which are distributed through the whole length of the body. Adjacent to these stigmata is a considerable number of small vessels, which proceed to every part, ramify infinitely, and conduct the atmospheric air. This fluid is decomposed by the chyle of the insects: the oxygen is absorbed, the azote is separated and rejected, and becomes carbonic acid.

The vessels for the circulation of the permanent fluids have ever a connection with those of respiration; for it is upon the chyle conveyed by the blood that the aerial fluid acts. M. Couvier thought that insects had no blood-vessels, but that the air distributed through their body coming in contact with chyle without other assistance, produced the decomposition required. He likewise is of opinion that this fluid obtains access to the body of the insect by absorption.

Nutrition consists of mastication and digestion. We have already treated of what is most curious in the former; we shall now select what is more immediately concerned with the latter.

We observe in insects what is common to all other animals, that the intestines are varied according to the species of nourishment they are designed to receive. Thus carnivorous animals have their digestive powers less complete than granivorous. In those insects which have these powers most perfect we notice an œsophagus, a stomach, intestinal channels of different diameters, and a rectum, or receptacle for the feces.

The liver is supplied by a tuft of delicate floating filaments, which surround the intestinal channel through its whole length, and which take rise from the lower part of the intestine second in size. The other glands of the insect are found in those animals which elaborate different liquids for the purposes of their existence: the most remarkable are those which compose

compose the resinous matter from which silk is produced, and the poison of the sting in the bee, wasp, &c.

Under the skin of the larvæ we remark a thick substance of a considerable size, which encloses the whole of the viscera, but of which the office is not yet discovered.

The organs of generation, which are so admirably contrived in the different species of animals, exhibit in entomology some singular varieties which are peculiar to this class of beings.

The sexes are always distinct. The males often differ greatly from the females in their exterior conformation. The individuals which are referred to the neuter gender are in fact females in which the organs of generation are not perfect.

All insects are oviparous excepting the puceron, and they are extremely careful in selecting fit places in which to deposit and preserve their eggs.

The greater part of them undergo successive changes in their form: these changes are more or less complete, and occasion the distinction of the different modes and degrees of transmutation.

On this department of his subject our author takes peculiar care in the illustration. He considers an individual from its earliest state through all its progress, with the alterations it undergoes until it become inanimate and mingle with the dust.

The animal expelled from the egg arrives at the state of the larva or caterpillar. It has often not the smallest resemblance in its form, organization, or habitudes, with the animal which deposited the principle of its life. The larvæ are very different from each other: the perfect insect is not more various in its power, its shape, and its habitudes. Generally, they eat with avidity. They increase in bulk very fast, which occasions the frequent rejection of the exterior cuticle.

When the larvæ have arrived at their full size, their next business is to provide for their security during the time they remain in the state of the second transmutation. As they approach to this state, their body shortens, the dorsal rings enlarge, the skin gives way, and a form expands almost immovable, which exhibits, however, every part of a perfect insect, but obscure and involved. This state is called that of the aurelia or chrysalis.

The insect continues a longer or a shorter period in this inert condition, according to the temperature of the air, and the species to which it belongs. It is in this interval that the several parts are unfolded, and that its resemblance is acquired to the insect by which it was produced. The exterior coat is broken, the walls of its prison moulder away, and the animal acquires freedom in a perfect condition to enjoy its blessings.

In this state, however, they are of short duration: they only exist to propagate their species, and to deposit their eggs in security; and, consistently with this design of nature, the females, who have the care of the ovarious production, are permitted to live a few days longer than their companions.

The curious author details some interesting phenomena that are exhibited by particular insects, such as the change of colour and phosphoric property; also some peculiarities in their habitudes or modes of existence. He affirms that every animal and vegetable substance whatever, is the food of some species of insect. He relates the different expedients of which they avail themselves to escape from their numerous foes, sometimes by force, at others by artifice; and he shews their wonderful dexterity in seizing upon their prey.

M. Brogniart has given a separate article, in which he has treated of the principal writers, and of their several systems of entomology. He

ascenda

ascends as high as Gesner, and produces the history down to our own time; analyzing the works and pointing out the defects of the several naturalists as they pass under his review.

Notwithstanding the ingenuity of the physiologists of France, much yet remains to be explored. The existence of the sense of smelling with insects, it is true, is completely ascertained; but the principal organs concerned are not yet determined. Students are now engaged in experiments on the tracheæ of the stigmata, in the hope of removing this difficulty. The organ of hearing is not only undiscovered, but the faculty itself is questioned in these animalculæ by the most diligent inquirers. It is not at this day known whether an insect, reposing on a piece of ordnance at the instant of its discharge, hear the report which makes the rampart from which it thunders vibrate to its foundation.

Remarks on the Attack of Public Schools, by Dr. Rennell and the Bishop of Meath; on Dr. Vincent's Reply; and on the general Merit of public and private Education.

A DIVERSITY of sentiment will always exist, wherever the interests of individuals are dependent on the judgment of the public. Experience witnesses the magnitude of this diversity, and shews, that even where truth is little doubtful to an impartial observation, interest can prejudice the coolest reason, and trouble the most lucid waters. If then, on easy and obvious subjects, so much difference of judgment is often manifest, it must be still more prevalent on points of acknowledged difficulty. The merits and demerits of public education have long been considered as a very delicate inquiry, and the question has frequently been agitated with a solicitude worthy its importance. It has lately been revived in various forms, and by men fully competent to treat it with ability.

On June 6, 1799, Dr. Rennell (the master of the Temple) preached the annual charity sermon at St. Paul's, which was afterwards printed, and dispersed, in the usual manner, by the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge. He therein severely animadverted on "the lamentable and notorious defectiveness of Christian education in many of our public schools, and other great seminaries of this nation." In a note to this passage, the same objection is repeated and enforced.

The Bishop of Meath (Dr. O'Beirne) preached on the same occasion, May 21, 1801. In a note to his sermon, Dr. Rennell's censure is emphatically renewed†.

To this charge, which he justly considers as of a most serious and alarming nature, Dr. Vincent opposes himself with resolution and ability. He is induced by peculiar circumstances to stand forth in answer to an apparently general accusation: he conceives also, that the hostile shaft may not be launched absolutely at a venture; but be possibly discharged with a more immediate aim at that noble seminary which he has himself so long and so ably guided.

Dr. Vincent has treated under three heads the specific charges of his adversaries.

* Sermon, p. 7.

† "I had proposed for my a few words on the sad degeneracy of our public schools, in this most important part of education, and their systematic neglect of that religious instruction which in the earlier parts of the Reformation, and even to a much later date, was so carefully provided for the higher and wealthier classes of the British youth: but I found the subject anticipated by Dr. Rennell, in his sermon on this anniversary, and I could add nothing to what that zealous and eloquent preacher had there urged, to call the public attention to this portentous evil." Note, p. 39.

"That a preference is due to the religious education in charity schools, compared with the instruction in public seminaries."

"That the paganism taught in public schools is noxious to the cause of christianity:† and,

"That public schools are guilty of a systematic neglect of all religious instruction."

In reply to the first charge Dr. Vincent observes, "that Dr. Rennell ought not to assume a right of censuring every other species of education, but the one he was to recommend: he ought not to have flattered the poor at the expence of the rich: he ought not to have elated the poor above their condition, by enhancing the value of their acquirements, and depreciating those of every other order in society: he ought not to have told the instructors of these children, that they were more able, or at least more willing, to do their duty than his brethren of the clergy, who were engaged in the higher departments, and the more arduous office of educating the children of the wealthy and the noble."

With regard to the second charge, the accusation is of greater magnitude, and the defence is likewise more solicitous. This is no question of preference or comparison, but an imputation of the severest nature, and the most serious consequence.

The invidious application of the term "pagan education," to the mode of instruction adopted in our schools and universities, is noticed by Dr. Vincent with spirited animadversion, and the propriety of initiating youth into the rich treasures of classical eloquence and poetry is vindicated with energy and justice. It is rightly observed; that there exists not the slightest danger of boys being deceived by the wild romance of heathen superstition, and that, though they are taught to read the metamorphoses and histories of Ovid, they are never so ignorant as to believe them. It might have been added, that the contempt with which children are taught to view the mythology of Greece, may implant in their tender minds an early preservative against superstition. This is an object of no slight importance; and one which Dr. Rennell himself will not be disposed to undervalue. He possesses too just an indignation against the papal impositions, perhaps too lively an apprehension of their success, to think that little is gained by whatever may fortify the mind against delusion. If he thinks, however, that superstition is not the evil by which the religion of the nineteenth century is endangered: if he conceives that a tendency to unbelief is more justly to be dreaded, he may yet rest assured, that the contempt of heathen fiction will never impede the reception of reasonable truth, and that an immeasurable distance exists even in the boyish mind,

* Another circumstance of the times which renders the labours of the society of peculiar exigency, is the most lamentable and notorious defectiveness of Christian education in many of our public schools, and other great seminaries of this nation. All who are acquainted with the elementary ignorance of Christianity, in which clergymen are permitted to remain in the greater part of our public institutions, (and it is impossible to be much conversant in them without knowing this) will see how necessary the exertions of this society are, for preserving the light of the gospel among the lower ranks of men. The charitable hand which supplies the deficiency among the poor, is peculiarly grateful to God and beneficial to mankind.—Dr. Rennell's Sermon, p. 7.

† There is scarcely an internal danger which we fear, but what is to be ascribed to a Pagan education, under Christian establishments, in a Christian country. Dr. Rennell's Sermon (note A) p. 18.

‡ We cannot but lament that in very few of our best endowed seminaries, the study of Christianity has that portion of time and regard allotted to it, which the wel are of society, the progress of delusive and ruinous errors, and the true interest of sound learning itself, seems at the present time peculiarly to call for. In some of them, and those not of small celebrity or importance, all consideration of the revealed will of God is passed over with a resolute, systematic, and contemptuous neglect, which is not exceeded in that which the French call their National Institute. Id. Id.

between

between the goat-nursed Jupiter of the lying Cretans, and the God of Christians. The images of the false will never excite the notion of the true God, except with that natural respect which is in itself a pious exercise. The stories of Tantalus or Lætaon may suggest the idea of tribulation; but it is strengthened and improved by accurate observations, by the precepts of better knowledge, and more perfect principles.

The classical writers elevated the languages, in which they wrote, to the highest degrees of elegance and of refinement: they diffused over them an inimitable grace, which has not been imparted to modern languages either by the new discoveries, or the extended science of modern times. The Greek language in particular defies the proudest competition in point of copiousness and harmony: it contains the original records of Christianity, and the most important documents concerning its reception and its progress. To feel its beauties and understand its genius, it will generally be admitted that an early and strict attention is requisite to its best and purest writers; to the genuine sources of Athenian eloquence. Would Dr. Rennell substitute the exhortation of Clemens Alexandrinus, or the Stromata of his more celebrated disciple,* for the orations of Demosthenes, and the philosophy of Plato? From what models would he wish us to suppose that his own acknowledged eloquence was derived, or in what schools his learning acquired, and his judgment perfected? The merit of the Christian fathers as men is admirable, and as writers often praiseworthy: it would be useless and unpleasing to enlarge on their deficiencies or their errors, but, it is to be hoped, the world will continue to believe, that what is lost in taste is lost in virtue, and that to fatigue the tender mind with ecclesiastical learning, will not necessarily improve its progress either in virtue or religion.

Within a year after the preaching of Dr. Rennell's sermon before the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, (it was in the beginning of May 1800), the writer of these remarks had the pleasure, and it was to him an high one, of hearing a discourse delivered by its author at the Temple church. It convinced him that Dr. Rennell was, indeed, a man warmly solicitous in the great cause of Christianity, which he had undertaken to defend, and that he was not unjustly celebrated for eloquence and ability. The matter however, of that discourse was scarcely such as might have been expected from a person who, shortly before, had inveighed so bitterly against pagan learning. Its principal topic was the display of pagan opinions on the most interesting event of human nature, upon death, and the pagan author selected by Dr. Rennell as the subject of his chief and very warm commendation, was not even Xenophon or Plato; it was not either of those philosophers from whose accurate and sublime morality the Christian himself may derive information and delight: it was the very prince of all paganism; it was that very Homer, from whom, immediately at least, is derived all the mythology of ancient heathenism; all the licentiousness of its gods, and all the splendid yet incongruous edifice of its Olympus. This discourse of Dr. Rennell it is by no means intended to condemn. He seemed, indeed, to be labouring in vain, when he applied his observations to the attack of a fact which is too strongly attested by evidence for any force to shake: too soothing, and too consistent to our reason for any genius to undermine. It is singular that a scholar, and a divine, should ever have conceived it possible to prove, that the ancient philosophy had never been able to fortify the mind against the fear of death, or, if possible, have wished to prove it. The consolations of Christianity are, indeed, incomparably more power-

ful, but we should be traitors both to God and to ourselves did we reject the resources, and the aids of nature, where they are most necessary.

Though the object of Dr. Rennell's discourse was injudicious, yet many of his previous observations were just and striking. His tribute to the praise of poetry, and of the poet was not new, but it was vigorously expressed; and the heart of one at least, among the Dr.'s audience, applauded his merited eulogium on a pagan and an idolater. In colours how vivid was the restless and cold discontent of the fabled Elysium portrayed: how useful and satisfactory a comparison might be made, and in an after discourse, it is trusted, was made, between the ignorance of the heathen world, and the comforts which possess the Christian's soul. This is a noble object, and this, no doubt, Dr. Rennell is well qualified to accomplish. It is that which, in the pulpit, he has himself recommended with popularity and advantage. It is an object which that mode of education, which Dr. Rennell has too hastily stigmatized, is best suited to attain; and it is a lesson which, in every variety of that education is solicitously inculcated. Perhaps no circumstance can be more favourable to a child's religion, than an early introduction to mythology. Though in the school he is taught the wars and the genealogies of fictitious deities, yet he lives in a Christian country, he is taught Christian principles, and his attention is called on every side to Christian rites. The comparison between truth and fable thus tacitly excited in his mind, and encouraged by his master's comments, may prove more effectual than direct instruction. No accident or blindness can prevent his distinguishing the advantages of Christianity over Paganism: he sees them the more clearly, because he sees them strongly contrasted: no prejudice obstructs their display, or counteracts their operation.

The remaining charge adduced against public education is that of a "resolute and systematic neglect of religious instruction." The mode, in which this charge is expressed, is unquestionably inaccurate; for religious instruction in all our public schools is *systematically* observed. If they are deficient in this necessary duty, the deficiency is not systematic, but it arises from a violation of system: it arises from the nominal discharge, but the practical neglect of a regular institution. From this neglect Dr. Vincent defends himself with success.

Rousseau, among others, has said, that religion is not the business of early youth: that a subject of such momentous concern ought never to be impressed on the infant mind; but that it should be reserved for the study and meditation of a riper age. This opinion can be grounded only on mistaken opinions concerning the nature of the mind. Children, as Rousseau well knew, are neither idle nor uninquisitive: they are not void of reflection on the causes which placed them in life, and the laws which regulate their existence. The mind, wherever it is interested, is never neutral; if it be not taught what is right, it will learn what is wrong. On this subject, and on the importance of Christian education Dr. Rennell argues with propriety and justice. Yet, since schools consist of children, not of men, since milk, rather than strong meat is the proper aliment for their tender years: it is necessary, not only that they be not suffered to pine through want, but that they be guarded against oppression, and satiety. Dr. Rennell thinks justly that children may be irreparably injured by the neglect of religious education: if he will consult a little work which professes to relate instances of early piety*, he will see that they may easily be made frantic by the pursuit

* Published, it is believed, by the Society for propagating the Gospel.

of a contrary extreme, by loading them with a burden which they cannot bear. Let us not be drawn into Charybdis by our solicitude to avoid the rocks of Scylla.

In estimating the merits of public schools a decisive appeal may be made to their effects. What are the characters and the lives of those who have been thus educated. Are they not, as members of society, at least equally meritorious with those who have been introduced to life by other paths? Are they not as good husbands, as good fathers, and as good Christians. Dr. Rennell admits the test, but anticipates a very contrary decision. He asserts "that young men of rank and talents" (clearly intimating those who have passed through a school and college education) "are dismissed into the world utterly and grossly ignorant of religion, its evidences, doctrines, and motives; that they are hurried on, by heated imaginations and inflamed pride, agitated rather than controlled by the learning they have acquired, to turn the arms of eloquence and genius to the subversion of order, and the destruction of their native country*."

This is a most heavy charge, and if this be the fact, so decisive an argument from the fruits of public education can scarcely be parried by the subtlest disputant. If this be the case, we are highly obliged to him who endeavours to open our eyes to the danger of our situation, while we yet walk in the light, if, indeed, we are still capable of retracing our steps. If it be not the case, to whom shall those harsh epithets be applied, which are justly merited by those who would subvert order, and destroy their native country. Will they not deservedly attach to him who derogates from its honesty, and its integrity, who inveighs against corruption which he cannot prove, and treachery which he cannot indicate. Long may Britain flourish in affluence, prosperity, and peace. (The public happiness is largely interested in the preservation of these blessings: but, if the state of education among us be such as Dr. Rennell describes, the country itself is scarcely worth our care: the mortification is so far advanced that all milder modes of treatment can be but vain, and the cautery is become indispensable.

It has been said, perhaps too frequently that "a little learning is a dangerous thing." The observation is often just, and it may be justly, and properly applied to such learning as is without a solid and secure foundation. It may be asked, however, whether this "little shallow learning" is the characteristic feature of our schools and colleges? Are the young men there educated particularly remarkable for wild speculations, and visionary theories, for superficial accomplishments, and radical ignorance? Is Tydides inferior to his father, and the present generation less able, or more vicious than the past? Is it Westminster, or Eton, is it Oxford or Cambridge that produces the atheists, and the democrats of the day? "those profligate scholars, who use their heathen learning for no end, but as an instrument of evil, to corrupt and destroy the Christian world†." If the writer of these observations may be credited, and he has, possibly, had equal opportunities with Dr. Rennell of knowing the state of our universities, there is no period upon record in which true learning and sound religion have flourished in them, and abounded more. Those, whose efforts he has witnessed, there, and whose progress he has marked, since they have branched out into the various duties and occupations of active life, he has known to conduct themselves with more than usual propriety: and if, in the obscure, and thorny forest of political opinion, some few may have wandered from the way which is "right

* Serm. p. 19, Note A.

† Extract from Mr. W. Jones on the religious worship of the heathen, quoted by Dr. Rennell in note A. p. 19. Serm.

onward," they have generally proceeded with modesty and caution. He has seldom seen them become either bigotted or factious: he has known some few the disciples of Harrington, but scarcely any the followers of Thelwall. This picture is very different from that of Dr. Rennell: Who delineates the features with greater accuracy, it is with the public to determine.

It will not be improper to add to these reflections some farther remarks on the preference between private and public education. Admitting all the objections which may be enumerated against public schools, they may yet be considered as of little practical importance, unless a safer, and more eligible mode can be pointed out, of preparing youth for the various duties of society. To form superior scholars; to polish the manners, and refine the address; to fit the mind for enterprise, and probable success in the more active scenes of life, are objects, which it is generally allowed, are best accomplished by public education. They are objects of high price, and eminent importance. Yet it is willingly confessed, that, if they cannot be obtained without the sacrifice of virtue or of religion, they ought to be rejected without hesitation, and without casting one longing look on their fascinating charms. If better men, or better Christians are produced by private, than by public education, let the lesser be given up, that we may obtain the greater. It is confessed also, a fact too apparent to be denied, that much vice exists in all numerous societies, that schools are not exempt from its attacks, nor youth uncontaminated by its infection. It is granted, that he who sends his son to a public seminary must greatly risk the purity of his morals, and his early initiation into vice. These premises being conceded to them, the patrons of private education turn short upon their opponents, and think that they have secured the victory. They argue that private is preferable to public education, because it preserves the mind for a longer period uncontaminated by the world, and because it allows time for infixing moral principles more firmly, and fortifying it more completely against seduction.

It might be strongly urged, on the other hand, that, though we may fly to the forest, or to the cottage, the retreat is yet unknown from which vice can be excluded: that in retirement and seclusion it often exists in more groveling wickedness than in the bosom of society: that it is most despotic, where it is most secret. Yet this argument shall be omitted, because, where care and vigilance are assiduously preserved, the justice of its application may be diminished: and because it is, probably, the fact, that the youthful mind is longer preserved innocent in the private and parental mansion, than in public seminaries.

The danger of the first plunge into an unknown world, and almost an "untried existence" is always, and always must be formidable. The question, however, is not how to postpone a necessary danger to the most distant period, but how to meet it with the fairest prospect of victory. It is not, how to preserve in children an extreme purity, an attempt, which in any mode of treatment will commonly prove abortive, but so to found the character of the future man, as most to encourage the development of generous feelings, and to cherish the latent seeds of the most estimable virtues.

Though in private education there may be less actual vice, there is also less positive virtue. The mind is less stored with practical lessons of justice, of liberality, and fortitude. The conduct may be more correct, but the mental discipline is less penetrating and vigorous. It is necessary that boys like men should mix with their equals, that their tempers should be polished by collision, and their hearts ennobled by the unwritten law of honour: that, instead of trembling at the rod of a preceptor which art or fortune may influence or avert, they should consult

cult their estimation among their companions, whose observation they cannot elude, and whose eyes they cannot blind. Thus their talents will not be drawn, unwillingly, into light, with ungrateful and resentful difficulty, but be illicit by the glow of energy, and that spirit of emulation, which is infused into the body of a public school, which is not the envious hatred of particular superiority, but the noble pursuit of general distinction. It should be remembered also that fear is as destructive as temerity: that the stagnant unwholesome lake is as dangerous as the troubled ocean: and that though even the oak may be torn by tempest, yet that a breeze is necessary to root the sapling.

The entrance of a public school is the entrance of the world. The arts, passions, and the politics of men are all conspicuous in this interesting community. The future statesman, and the future soldier here assume their several characteristics. In most respects this entrance into life is advantageous. Generous and noble qualities here assume pre-eminence, and there exists here less predominance of the sordid and selfish inclinations than in the world at large. It is, however, on this extended scope, and this wide field of action which is open to the school-boy, that the panegyrists of private education have stationed their most efficient argument. The hazard attendant on the exposure of youth to a mixed and tainted atmosphere has struck them with deserved solicitude. They contend, therefore, for the delay of this necessary introduction to a maturer age, when stronger reason, and improved principle may be supposed more competent to resist infection.

It seems, however, little sanctioned by experience to hope, that, by occupying more time in the moral preparation of the mind, it is rendered less liable to seduction, and it would be difficult to prove that youth is more competent than childhood to resist the call of pleasure. Reason, no doubt, increases with augmented years, but the enemies of reason increase in a multiplied proportion: the senses unfold new powers; and the desires are excited by keener impulses. Estimating the strength of principle according to the relative powers of its antagonists, it is, perhaps, stronger in childhood than in youth: and if, at the age of twelve or of fourteen, the boy may have been unable to resist the contagion of a school, he will scarcely acquire greater firmness, if his entrance into the world be reserved to the period of adolescence: when all his passions will have gathered strength; and every temptation will court him with added charms. To those who have been introduced into life before the arrival of this dangerous period, the shock of passion is much mitigated; and the charms of pleasure, which is always most fascinating when it is new, are deprived of their gloss, and their adventitious lustre. Experience has taught them habits of wariness and circumspection; they have learned to avoid ridicule, and elude surprize, the snares by which the captives of vice, and the votaries of error are principally increased.

There is another advantage of no small importance attendant on an early introduction into life, that the errors of childhood are more easily to be remedied than the vices of youth, and less disastrous in their effects. By young men of riper years the cup of Circe may be emptied to the dregs; enslaved to dissipation, they may long pursue it in its most injurious forms, till stimulated beyond the powers of nature, and victims to excessive debauchery, their minds become degraded, their constitutions debilitated, and their fortunes blasted. Children are too weak to be capable of such ruinous excess: their minds are too pliant to be incurably depraved.

The sentiments of the writer of these reflections, respecting the merited preference of public or private education, will easily be perceived; and, indeed, they are not doubtful. When he looks round on his friends

or his acquaintance, he feels his opinion strengthened. He thinks that those among them who have been bred at public seminaries, are in general, not only the ablest, but also the best men: the most elegant scholars, and the truest Christians.

Human nature, however, is too various for that which may be generally good, to be equally eligible in all cases. Different minds require different educations, and physical distinctions, or the peculiar impressions and tendencies of early childhood require analogous varieties of treatment. Repugnant dispositions are no more suited to a similar education, than repugnant soils to the same agriculture. Some children require a strict curb, and a strong hand: to others the reins may safely be relaxed. There will always exist much room for private judgment: and many anomalies which general rules will be incompetent to decide.

Men are often partial to the mode of education which they have themselves received, and the author of these pages has appealed so frequently to his own experience, that he cannot be backward in again referring to it. He was educated in the love of letters, and of Christian as well as Pagan knowledge, partly in private, and partly in a large and public, though not a royal seminary, and he fancies that both modes of instruction were, in his instance, combined with profit. He acknowledges the assiduity, and the care of his first preceptor with very sincere gratitude, and he is far from being insensible to the benefits which he experienced from his removal into a larger circle. To the remembrance of the progress made, and the knowledge acquired in that circle he recurs with satisfaction, though had he been so fortunate as to have been placed under the auspices of Dr. Vincent, he knows that he should have been more learned, and he does not think that he should have been less virtuous.*

V. E.

FEMALE LITERATURE.

IN the *Magasin Encyclopedique* of March last we notice a biographical article in continuation, including a variety of female writers under the letters B and C, the account being given in alphabetical order. It is devoted only to the English literate, and comprises the following: Mrs. Brooke, Miss Brooke, Lady Burrell, Anne Burleigh Countess of Oxford, Elizabeth Burnet, Elizabeth Berry, Lady Elizabeth Carew, the Countess Dowager of Carlisle, Elizabeth Carter, Mrs. Cartwright, Mrs. Celesia, Susan Centlivre, Mrs. Chapone, Charlotte Clarke, Lady Mary Chudleigh, Susan Marian Cibber, Catherine Clive, and Catherine Trotter.

Under each article are given anecdotes of the characters referred to, and an arrangement is made of the literary productions in which they were concerned. The author is not among the numerous enemies of female erudition, and has given this account of the attainments of the petticoat school in England, to promote a laudable emulation in the softer sex of his own country: and if an Englishman, in compliment to the learned ladies of France, were to produce a similar catalogue of the females of that country, it would exhibit a mean of comparison in nowise dishonourable to the neighbouring state.

* Dr. Vincent has committed a slight error where he says p. 30. that not a name of all Milton's pupils is upon record, as he may be convinced by references to Hayley's life of that Poet, where he will find that one of those pupils became author of a work which is not contemptible. So minute an oversight would scarcely have been mentioned, were it not incumbent on every Englishman, by every means, both in season and out of season, to rescue the memory of Milton from the slightest constructive imputation.



GENEALOGY.

MARQUIS CORNWALLIS.

UNLESS the noble qualities of the ancestry be transmitted with the titles of hereditary distinction, whatever vanity the imbecile descendant may indulge in the retrospect of his ancient pedigree, the public can contemplate nothing in it but a comparison dishonourable to himself and disgraceful to his country: but when a line of illustrious progenitors have transferred with their own blood the inherent virtues of their family, the hereditary representative jointly of the dignity of their station and of the virtues of their lives is not only himself interesting to his country, but he casts a reflected ray of splendour on the ashes of his predecessors, and we become inquisitive into every part of their history. It is on this account we have recurred with peculiar pleasure to the genealogical details of the family of the Marquis Cornwallis.

We can trace this family for a period of above five centuries. Philip Cornwalleys lived in the reign of king Henry III. and died under Edward I. in 1291. Robert Cornwalleys died in 1350, in the time of Edward III. and this person was probably father to Thomas Cornwalleys, one of the sheriffs of London under Richard II. The injurious part which the sheriffs were required to take, to corrupt the parliament of the country during this reign, is well known: it is honourable for this gentleman that he does not seem at all implicated in these proceedings; for he died on January the 4th, 1384, prior to the general change of the magistrates that took place in order to answer the criminal purposes of the court. It is probable that the patrimony of the family hitherto was small; for although it is alluded to, its situation is not noticed in history. John Cornwalleys, the heir of the sheriff, added to his estate the lordships of Broome and Okeley and some other lands in Suffolk, by his marriage

with Philippa, the daughter of Robert Bufton. He was elected one of the knights for Suffolk in two parliaments in the reign of Richard II. but whether he were instrumental in those arbitrary laws which dishonour this reign, or a firm and resolute patriot resisting the encroachments of prerogative, and asserting the rights of the people, the imperfect records of our legislature will not permit us to determine. He died in the reign of Henry VI. about the year 1435, directing his burial to be performed in the church of St. Martin's Vintry, London, and leaving Thomas Cornwalleys, esq. his heir, who married Philippa, the heir of Edward Tyrrel, of Downham in the county of Essex, esq. He survived his father but one year, and his estates devolved to his son of the same name. This gentleman and John Howard, esq. were returned knights for Suffolk to the parliament held the 28th year of the turbulent reign of Henry VI. He had four sons, John, Edward, Robert, and William, and one daughter, named Catherine; married to Francis Froxmer, esq.

John, the eldest son, succeeded to the estates, but died without issue in the year 1506, under Henry VI. and his will, which is extant, bearing date the 29th of November of the same year, is a singular specimen of the simplicity of the gentry of that day. The estates now came to Edward, who also died without children four years afterwards, as appears by the inscription engraved on brass in the chancel of the church of Broome.

The patrimony now devolved to the third brother, who likewise dying childless, it descended to William Cornwalleys, whom we mentioned to be the youngest brother. The family had now become sufficiently opulent to give consequence to the junior branches of it; for it appears this gentleman, during the life of his brothers, was in the list of those of the county of Suffolk who were certified in the 18th of Henry VII. to have an estate adequate to support the rank of a knight of the Bath; and in the 5th of Henry VIII. he was nominated by act of parliament, with other discreet persons, justices of the peace for assessing the subsidy to defray the expence of taking Terouenne and Tournay. He married Elizabeth, daughter of John Stamford, esq. died in the 11th of Henry VIII. and was buried at Okeley, as appears by the inscription on his monument, in which, however, a mistake of one year is made in the time of his decease.

This gentleman left five children: John, his heir; Thomas, archdeacon of Norwich; Edward, afterwards groom-porter to queen Elizabeth; William; and Francis Cornwalleys, of Peckham in Surrey, who on the death of Edward succeeded to the office in the royal household. John Cornwalleys was the first of the family who made any distinguished figure in the military history of this country; for in the battle of Spury, his father seems to have had no part in the honour, and to have been only concerned in the invidious employment of exacting from the people the charges of that expedition: but John, in the 13th of Henry VIII. accompanied the lord high admiral to Bretagne, and behaving himself with unlaunted courage in storming the town of Morlaix, the military honours of knighthood were paid him on that occasion; which was the first titular distinction received by the family. When he was forty-six years old, he was appointed steward of the household to prince Edward, and died six years afterwards, at Ashruge in Bucks, in the year 1544. Sir John Cornwallis was not only eminent for his gallantry as a soldier, but possessed great integrity and all the domestic virtues. A splendid monument is erected to his memory in the chancel of the church of Broome.

Thomas Cornwallis, his eldest son, was knighted in 1548 by Edw. VI. and the next year was called to perform an active and dangerous duty in

the cause of his sovereign. In 1549, the 3d of Edward VI. an insurrection took place in Norfolk, under Ket the tanner. "Men are often dangerous in proportion to their contemptibility:" the lower orders have a strong sympathetic interest in the success of one drawn to public notice from their own rank; and the prepossession was so powerful, that twenty thousand rebels collected round the person of this leader. Notwithstanding the great agitation of the public mind on religious subjects at this period, it is extremely singular that this conspiracy had nothing to do with the religious tenets of the prince or the people, and it is honourable to Ket, however mistaken in the means or disappointed in the end, that to restore to his countrymen their civil rights was the simple and avowed object of this insurgent. On Moushold-hill above Norwich stood an ancient oak: to this spot Ket advanced with his party, and erected there a tribunal to administer justice and to discuss the grievances of the state. The tree was contemplated with a sort of veneration by the inhabitants of the country, and it acquired the title of the Oak of Reformation. To suppress this rebellion, the marquis of Northampton, and Edward lord Sheffield under his authority, were ordered to march toward Norwich with a very inadequate force. To the protector's conduct during these troubles it is not easy to assign the motives. The force was not only incompetent, but it was committed to an officer who was guilty of great indiscretion: instead of keeping at some distance augmenting his forces from the adjacent country, and intercepting the provisions of the rebels; with his handful of troops he entered Norwich. The next day he was forced to make a precipitate retreat, leaving one hundred of his men dead in the streets, and thirty prisoners in the possession of the enemy. Among the former was lord Sheffield, whose horse falling into a ditch, he was killed by a butcher with a bludgeon: Sir Thomas Cornwallis (having with his friends joined the royal party) was among the latter; and was detained until the king's forces under the earl of Warwick relieved him, when the insurgents to the number of two thousand were slain, and many prisoners were taken. Ket their captain died on a gibbet in the city which had been the great theatre of action during the contest. If the nobility and gentry of the country had aided the public cause with the same zeal Sir Thomas exercised, the detachment under the marquis might have been competent to have encountered an irregular force with such a conductor. In 1553, the last year of Edward's reign, Sir Thomas was sheriff of Norfolk and Suffolk, and seems to have exercised an authority resembling that of a lord lieutenant. The disturbances in Norfolk, Devon, and Yorkshire, had made a very serious impression on the court. It was found to be extremely inconvenient to send forces from the neighbourhood of the capital to suppress every insignificant pretender; and the distance from the scene of action occasioned a delay dangerous to the state. On this account, a new order of extraordinary magistrates was appointed about this time, under the title of lords lieutenant, who were the standing representatives of the crown in their several provinces, where they exercised a sort of military government, which was then found necessary.

On the death of Edward, Sir Thomas was concerned in a transaction of yet greater importance. It is well known Edward, previously to his death, had signed the conveyance of the crown to lady Jane Grey. The earl of Arundel had sent the princess Mary word of the young king's death, and the duke of Northumberland had neglected to obtain the possession of Mary's person. She was at Hunsdon in Herts when she received the intelligence from Arundel: on this communication, she precipitately retired to Kenning-hall in Norfolk, and from thence, in order to be near the sea in case flight were expedient, repaired to the castle of Framling-

ham in Suffolk. From Norfolk she had written to the council; from the castle she wrote to the nobility, asserting her right and demanding allegiance. In this critical situation it was, that Sir Thomas Cornwallis, uniting the forces of the two counties over which he presided, came to the castle for the protection of Mary, and in consequence he may be considered as principally instrumental in introducing that princess to the throne of her father.

Sir Thomas was not only concerned in placing her on the throne, but his exertions were found necessary to secure to the queen that situation. It was not wonderful that the marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain had given disgust to the English people: in consequence of it a general insurrection was planned under the duke of Suffolk, Sir Peter Carew, and Sir Thomas Wyatt; the first was to act in Warwickshire, and involve the north in the contest; the second in Cornwall, and to influence the west; and Wyatt in Kent, was to invite the co-operation of the eastern counties. Sir Thomas Wyatt from whom this insurrection takes its name, bishop Burnet observes, had been often employed on the Spanish embassy, where he had observed the cruelty and subtlety of the Spaniards with so much vigilance, that he looked with great concern on the dangers to which his country was exposed by the royal nuptials. The rebellion gave just alarm to the court, where nothing was prepared to suppress it. Mary sent a herald to offer Wyatt a full pardon: he was in a state of fluctuation, until Sir George Harding, one of his adherents, went to the duke of Norfolk who commanded six hundred of the city trained bands, and so artfully managed the interview, that this force abandoned the duke and joined the insurgents. He now marched with four thousand men towards the capital; at London bridge he was opposed: he therefore determined to cross the Thames at Kingston; when he arrived there the bridge was broken to obstruct his progress: it was however soon repaired, and he arrived without opposition at Hyde Park. A scheme pregnant with the most important transactions often proves abortive, from incidents the most frivolous. After this successful progress, one of the military equipages happened to receive some injury; the time unseasonably spent in repairing the carriage was fatal to his design: in this short interval Harper deserted; the earl of Pembroke and lord Chinton in consequence were made acquainted with the route he proposed, and waited his arrival in the city. Sir John Gage, lord chamberlain, however ventured to oppose him at Charing Cross, but was forced to retire in disorder. Wyatt himself advanced with five companies to Temple Bar, proceeding through the Strand, while his enemies were cutting off his retreat in every direction. Contrary to his expectation, the gates were shut against him; more careful of the lives of his followers than of his own, finding the citizens determined to oppose his cause, he surrendered himself without opposition, and was conducted to prison. Sir Peter Carew had escaped into France; and the duke of Suffolk was betrayed in the house of one of his own domestics. This insurrection occasioned the death of the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, who was executed on the 12th February 1554, after seeing the headless trunk of her husband pass by her from the place of execution: her father was executed on the 21st. Soon afterwards the earl of Sussex, Sir Edward Hastings, and Sir Thomas Cornwallis, the latter of whom had been instrumental in suppressing the tumult, were commissioned for the trial of Sir Thomas Wyatt. The fear of death has often a powerful influence on men, who meet every other event with the greatest fortitude. Wyatt offered to make discoveries if his life were preserved: his hopes were flattered, and he dared to accuse the princess Elizabeth of abetting the conspiracy; in consequence although she was unfit for removal from illness, the princess was brought to London, and

and was for two weeks committed to Whitehall, where no one was allowed to approach her person; but even this was deemed insufficient, therefore on the 11th of March she was sent to the tower: in the mean time, the conduct of the court gave either to the Princess or Wyatt little hope of security. On the 14th and 15th of February fifty-nine of Wyatt's adherents were hanged. Sir Thomas Throgmorton the ambassador to France in the succeeding reign, was accused and tried; the jury for his acquittal were severely fined, and this rigour answered the purposes of the court; for it was fatal to Sir John his brother, who was found guilty on the very same evidence by which his relation was acquitted. Wyatt when he discovered death was inevitable, declared the innocence of the Princess, and fearing his declaration should be suppressed, renewed it on the 11th of April, at the place of execution.

About the time Sir Thomas Cornwallis was employed to enquire of Wyatt, at Dartford in Kent, the grievances for which he took arms, he was sent to the princess Elizabeth at Ashbridge, to acquaint her with the queen's desire that she should immediately repair to London, and it is probable that in this interview he acquired an accurate knowledge of Elizabeth's character. He was elected to the privy council in consequence of his activity in Wyatt's affair, and before that body it was soon afterwards debated to send the princess abroad in order to exclude her from the succession to the crown, but Sir Thomas Cornwallis took a decided part in favor of Elizabeth, on this occasion openly avowing her rights as the next heir to the throne, and declaring the public indignation that would be excited against a deed so atrocious. The fate of Calais is well known in Mary's reign; the resignation of this important gate of France was the only political event that powerfully impressed the mind of the queen, so completely insensible to the good of her country, was she rendered by the obduracy superstition induced; the garrison, which was only five hundred strong, in vain applied for a reinforcement; the governors of Calais and Guisnes in consequence were made prisoners, and ministers in order to insinuate that the places were surrendered by the neglect of those officers, permitted them to remain in disgraceful captivity. Sir Thomas, who had been constituted treasurer of Calais, was less unfortunate, having been recalled two months before its capture.

We can form but a very incompetent judgment of the influence of religious prejudices, in those times when the turf of Smithfield was parched with human sacrifices, and therefore we perhaps do not ascribe to Sir Thomas Cornwallis the merit he deserves, for his bold assertion of the rights of Elizabeth in the councils of her sanguinary predecessor. This gentleman was a Roman Catholic when the princess whose cause he espoused ascended the throne; his tenets necessarily occasioned his exclusion from the household and the privy council; he therefore retired to his patrimonial estate, rebuilt the mansion house of Broome-hall, and in the second of James I. died at the venerable age of fourscore and six: his remains were deposited in the vault of his ancestors. He had married the daughter of Sir John Jerminham of his own county, by whom he had two sons and three daughters: the sons were named William and Charles. The latter was highly esteemed for his great abilities. He was knighted by James I. at the Charter house, and in 1603 was sent ambassador into Spain. In 1610, when the virtuous Henry prince of Wales received his establishment, Sir Charles Cornwallis was appointed his treasurer, and on the decease of the prince he wrote a clear and elegant account of Henry's life.

William Cornwallis, the elder brother, embarked with the famous Robert Devereux earl of Essex, to suppress the rebellion in Ireland in 1599. The leading character of Elizabeth's reign was tardiness in council, and

and velocity in execution; to put a speedy end to this formidable insurrection, she sent a more powerful army to Ireland than had ever before entered it: twenty thousand foot and two thousand horse were placed under the command of Essex, but for once by the mismanagement of her officer she was disappointed in the completion of her designs. Instead of commencing offensive operations, and acting against the principal insurgent, Essex wasted his time by ineffectual skirmishes, and disgraced his army by the pusillanimity of a defensive war. The talents and valor of the commander were unquestioned, the policy of Elizabeth in employing the most suitable agents of her power is equally indisputable. When the secrets of courts are incapable of being unravelled by the most sagacious historians, idle garrulity will sometimes correctly unfold mysteries that affect the greatest political events: but it is below the dignity of history to record the conjectures of the frivolous and the tales of the malignant. Whatever might be the conduct of the commander in chief, William Cornwallis was deemed worthy of public reward, and for his services in Ireland was knighted in the year 1599. Sir William had married the eldest daughter and co-heir of John Nevill Lord Latimer, by whom he had William, who died in 1565 very young; he had also by the same lady, Thomas and four daughters. By his second wife, the daughter of Hercules Mewtas esq. he had issue Frederic Cornwallis, who was created Lord Cornwallis; but Thomas inherited the estate, and was elected member for Suffolk, and dying unmarried a year afterwards, the patrimony then devolved to his brother Frederic.

Frederic was introduced by his uncle Sir Charles Cornwallis, to the service of Henry prince of Wales, son of James I. who died at eighteen years old: had he lived, all the misfortunes of the ensuing reign would probably have been avoided, and the nation would have acquired respect abroad, and happiness at home. In consequence of this event, Frederic Cornwallis entered into the service of prince Charles, and attended him in his whimsical and adventurous journey to Madrid in 1623; or perhaps this expedition deserves a much more sombre view: for it was in the tempestuous times of Philip IV, at the court of an arbitrary monarch, with scenes of civil and religious thralldom exhibited on every side, that Charles, the manly and virtuous Charles, imbibed those principles of political government which involved himself and his country in reciprocal destruction. Our subject might properly lead us to a particular account of this transaction: to Charles's reception at Madrid, the artifices of Buckingham, the letters of Pope Gregory, and the expedients of Urban his successor to influence the mind of Charles and his council; but however curious and interesting these subjects, we are constrained to abandon them, from the length to which they would extend our discussions on the affairs of the family of Cornwallis. Frederic after succeeding his brother, was in the third of Charles I. 1627, created a baronet by letters patent, and in 1690 he received the honor of knighthood at Whitehall: in the fifteenth year of the same reign he was elected for Eye, and sat in the parliament that met at Westminster in 1640.

Charles had not very long returned from Spain before a civil contest arose in that kingdom, which separated from the monarchy some of the most beautiful and luxuriant of its provinces, and erected a rival power on its territory: he had now occasion to witness similar attempts in his own domains, but to him they were yet more fatal. Philip IV. lost Portugal; Charles I. lost his crown and his life. This was the era of the most formidable revolutions: in the east an empire more powerful than the collective strength of the monarchies of Europe was subverted.

Four years before the battle of Marston Moor, when Oliver Cromwell rose into notice, Frederic Cornwallis had taken a decided part in favor of his sovereign; the warm and active temper of Cornwallis could not

submit to the tardy procedure of parliament, and he joined the party of the Staffordians. In consequence he suffered the loss of his estate, imprisonment, and exile; but this resolute conduct that seemed likely to depress the rank of his family, was contrary to human expectation converted into the means of its future aggrandisement.

In the year 1643 a singular spectacle was exhibited to the country. The sessions of two distinct parliaments was held at the same time; the one at Oxford, the other at Westminster. In the Commons' house at Oxford summoned by king Charles, Sir Frederic Cornwallis was a member; it was an important object with both parliaments to obtain money; in their design they succeeded, for they were not scrupulous about the means: the former adopted the expedient of forced loans, and the latter established the excise, unknown before in British jurisprudence. Sir Frederic not only assisted his sovereign in a civil, but also in a military capacity, and on many occasions was distinguished for his courage.

The river Cherwell rises in Northamptonshire, and takes a direction due south in the county of Oxford to discharge its waters into the Isis. In 1644 the royal army under Charles, and the parliamentary force under Waller, occupied the opposite banks of this river; Waller had drawn up on a very advantageous ground, and waited the attack: the king in order to prevent his deriving benefit from this position, feigned to retreat northward with his main body; leaving however a strong guard at Cropedy bridge, Waller was drawn into the snare: he ordered a thousand horse to cross the river at a ford, and with fifteen hundred cavalry, one thousand infantry, and eleven pieces of cannon, attacked the bridge, took possession of it, and gave passage to his troops; flushed with victory he fell upon the rear of the royal army, but was repulsed with loss, both of men and artillery. It was in the actions in this neighbourhood that Sir Frederic Cornwallis distinguished himself, and by his personal valor rescued Lord Wilmot, who had been wounded and taken prisoner by the enemy.

In the sequel the places which had shewn the greatest loyalty, surrendered to the prevailing power; and those friends of the king who preserved consistency of conduct were no longer admitted to remain in peace in their native country. Charles II. was at this time an exile in France. Sir Frederic had resigned his property to public plunder: the liveliness of his wit, the courtliness of his manners, and the gallantry of his habits were utterly removed from the vulgar solemnity, the coarse effrontery, the cant and the hypocrisy of the sectaries of his time, with whom he could possess no common topic of feeling or intercourse: he forsook to disdain a country which defamed his religion and insulted his pride, and appeared in the suite of his fugitive prince, at the splendid court of Louis le Grand. We cannot determine whether he took an active part in the councils and in the expeditions of the young king, if he appeared in his court at Scone, or assisted at the battle of Worcester, or if he were stationary on diplomatic duties, we cannot discover, but he joined in the triumphant entry through the city of London, May 29, 1660, and the following day was declared treasurer of his Majesty's household, and sworn of the Privy Council: these marks of extraordinary favor lead us to suppose that he was materially instrumental in the restoration of his sovereign, and that he had transferred to the son the affection he felt for the father. When Nicholas Bacon died he was chosen for Ipswich, and in 1661 he was created in the banqueting room at Whitehall a baron of the realm, by the title of Lord Cornwallis of Eye, in the county of Suffolk; the January following he died of an apoplexy. He was twice married: the name of his first wife was Elizabeth, daughter of Sir John Ashburnham of Suffolk, by whom he had Charles his successor, and other children. His second wife was Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Henry Crofts of the same county.

Charles the second Lord Cornwallis, had been elected member for Eye to that parliament which restored Charles II. and had been knighted four days before the coronation: he died April 13, 1673. He was married to Margaret, daughter of Thomas Plagsted, esq. and was succeeded by Charles his third son, who took his seat in the House of Peers, February 16, 1676, who had been married the year of his father's death to Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Stephen Fox, in May 1688, to Anne Scot, dowager duchess of Monmouth and Buccleugh, and was distinguished as one of the most accomplished men of the age. In March 1692 he became privy counsellor, and was particularly esteemed by king William: at the time of his reception at the council board he was appointed first Lord of the Admiralty in the room of the earl of Pembroke; in 1689 he was made Lord Lieutenant, and Custos Rotulorum of the county of Suffolk, and in 1697 High Steward of the corporation of Ipswich, and dying the following year, he was succeeded by his eldest son Charles, issue of his first lady.

Charles the fourth Lord Cornwallis, accompanied king William in several campaigns in Flanders, until the object of those expeditions was terminated by the peace of Ryswick in 1697. On his father's death he took his seat in the House of Peers; six weeks after that event he was made Lord Lieutenant of the county of Suffolk; but soon after the accession of Queen Anne, the situation was assigned to Lionel earl of Dysart. His lordship was married in 1695 to Lady Charlotte Butler, daughter of the earl of Arran, by whom he had nine sons and three daughters: the sixth son, Edward, served several campaigns in Flanders in 1744 and 1745; and William Gee, the lieutenant colonel of the regiment in which he was major, being killed at the battle of Fontenoy, he was appointed to that command. This gentleman was in the action of Culloden, and was gradually advanced to the rank of lieutenant general for his military talents: he was chosen several times member for Eye, was made groom of his Majesty's bed-chamber in 1747, and in 1749 he was appointed governor of Placentia in Newfoundland, and captain general and governor in chief in Nova-Scotia. The general succeeded Sir Peter Warren as member for Westminster in 1753, and in 1762 he was constituted governor of Gibraltar. His father was made joint postmaster general, with James Craggs, esq. and retained this place until he succeeded Sir Robert Walpole in 1721, as paymaster general of the forces and of Chelsea college; he was made privy counsellor the same year, and died at the age of forty-six on January 19, 1722.

His eldest son Charles the fifth lord and first earl Cornwallis, was in 1721 made groom of the bed-chamber to George I.; and on the death of his father was appointed Lord Chief Justice, and Justice in Eyre of all the king's forests south of Trent; this situation he resigned in 1740, being then made lord lieutenant of the Tower Hamlets, governor of the Tower of London, and privy counsellor: on June 30, 1753, he was created viscount Broome, in the county of Suffolk, and earl Cornwallis: on the accession of his present Majesty his places were continued to him, and he died on the 23d June 1762. His lordship married Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Charles Lord Viscount Townshend, in 1722, and had issue four sons, Charles, Henry, James, and William; and three daughters, ladies Elizabeth, Charlotte, and Mary.

Charles the present, and second earl Cornwallis, was born Dec. 31, 1738. He preferred a military life, and passed through all the inferior ranks to that of a general officer: he was made captain in colonel Crawford's regiment in 1758, and in 1760 lord Broome was nominated aid-de-camp to lord Granby when he took the command of the English forces in Germany, where he served with the hereditary prince of Brunswick, and prince Ferdinand. In consequence of the death of his superior officer in 1762,

he was made Lieutenant Colonel of the 12th regiment of foot, and the same year was chosen member for Rye in Sussex, but his father dying the following year, he returned from Germany, and took his seat in the House of Peers, when he was made Lord of the Bedchamber and Aide-de-Camp to his present Majesty. Notwithstanding his posts in the royal establishment, he supported the principles of Lords Chatham and Camden, and voted against the Rockingham administration on the question of the taxation of America in 1765: the year following he was appointed Colonel of the 33d regiment, in 1767 he opposed the administration of the Duke of Grafton on a similar question to that we have just noticed, and the next year he married Miss Jones a young lady of great accomplishments and extensive property. Lady Mary and Lord Broome are the only surviving children of this marriage. His Lordship had lived about eight years in a state of connubial happiness, when on the occasion of the troubles in America, he was ordered to embark with his regiment for that continent: in consequence we believe of the intercession of his lady, the Archbishop of Canterbury his uncle, had obtained permission for his continuance in England; the duties of the patriot and the soldier, however, prevailed over every private feeling, and the death of the Countess is said to have been the consequence of this separation.

At the commencement of his career on the western continent Lord Cornwallis acted under the orders of general Howe, and on the 26th of September 1777, took possession of Philadelphia. In 1781 his Lordship marched from Charlestown to the assistance of Lord Rawdon, at Camden, attacked by the American general Gates; the militia of that country, harassed by poor living and a long march, took flight at the first onset, and the victory was decided in favour of the British troops. The most sanguinary executions followed this success, but this procedure is not to be attributed to Lord Cornwallis, who acted under the orders of administration, and of the chief in command on duty at the colonies. When South Carolina was deemed to be subdued, and a considerable force was left at Camden and the places adjacent under Lord Rawdon, Arnold was acting with vigour in Virginia: his Lordship now expected to march northward with uninterrupted success. Subsequent to these flattering appearances, his favourite officer Tarleton was defeated by Morgan; in consequence Lord Cornwallis resolved to attack the latter in Virginia, whither he had proceeded with his prisoners. In this urgent state of affairs, general Greene rode at considerable hazard one hundred and fifty miles across the country, to apprise Morgan of his situation, and to concert plans for his security. The corps under Morgan in consequence retreated to Guildford Court House, and his Lordship followed with so much speed, that the hostile parties more than once discovered each other on the opposite shores of the same river; the pursuit was however ineffectual, and the American parties formed a junction. The next object of Lord Cornwallis was to intercept the retreat of general Greene into Virginia, for the American forces under Greene were yet incompetent to face the royal army. The provincials however crossed the river Dan into that province, and the English general had the mortification to know that his troops had undergone the greatest difficulties, and had submitted to the most severe privations, without accomplishing the objects of the enterprise.

The Americans fought for their liberty, for their country and for their gods; to such a cause even the valour and conduct of Lord Cornwallis was feebly opposed; he saw the courage with which they encountered, and the rapidity with which they illuded his pursuit; he had tried the effects of severity, and he had employed the influence of benignity, more conformable to his natural disposition. North and South Carolina

were obedient to the Royal power; he now erected a standard and published a proclamation, inviting the approach of all loyal subjects to the British camp, in hopes of averting by this expedient the horrors of war; but even this was ineffectual. Three hundred and fifty inhabitants, however, under colonel Pyles, endeavoured to gain access to the king's quarters; they unfortunately fell in with a light body of Americans, whom mistaking for royal troops, many were cut down while they were exclaiming "God save the king." Tarleton was refreshing his legion about a mile from the slaughter; supposing them to belong to the rebel army, he also fell upon these unfortunates with his habitual impetuosity, and several of them were murdered before the opportunity was given for any explanation. The tide of the English affairs began now to recede; if Lord Cornwallis obtained a victory it was after a sanguinary contest, and the attempts to reinforce his army proving fruitless, every action, whatever might be the skill and courage displayed, rendered his situation more dangerous. During this time the Americans were strengthened on all sides. At the critical moment Count de Grasse arrived with a fleet in the Chesapeake, challenged admiral Graves, and rode in triumph in the bay. This fleet unloaded its transports, and dispatched a large body of fresh troops to the assistance of the provincials. Fayette and Rochambeau with the troops of France, and Washington with those of America, gradually concentrated their collective strength, and entered Williamsburg, whence Lord Cornwallis had retreated; they followed the English army to York town, which was immediately invested; the place was defended in the hope of receiving the assistance which had been long promised: this fatal disappointment terminated the services of Lord Cornwallis. He attempted to escape by sea, but the scheme was frustrated; he would have cut a passage through the main army of the enemy, but he was unwilling to sacrifice his hardy veterans in so destructive an enterprise: a council was convened, the town was surrendered, and the British troops became prisoners of war, on the territory which had so often witnessed their triumphs.

His Lordship's military duties in America engaged a term of about five years. After his return in 1783, he lost the office of governor of the Tower, on the coalition Ministry being admitted to the service of his Majesty; the India bill of Mr. Fox occasioned the dissolution of that junto. Lord Cornwallis was again restored to his former situation, and received the honour of a knight companion of the garter.

At this time the affairs of India wore a very melancholy aspect. Hyder Ali had been succeeded by his son Tippoo Saib, and the combined talents of these two enterprising Princes threatened the extermination of the British power in the east. The civil and military abilities of Lord Cornwallis were perfectly known to the minister, the critical state of India at this time required both the one and the other to avert the threatening storm, his Lordship was therefore appointed governor of Bengal and commander in chief of the forces in India.

The most serious events have often their origin in causes the most frivolous. The Dutch had sold Cranganore to a vassal of Tippoo Saib, the latter opposed the investment of his dependant with this new possession, the English remonstrated in favour of the Rajah of Travancore, and the Sultan of Mysore thought proper to resist this interference; the consequence was that Tippoo Saib lost sixty seven forts, eight hundred pieces of cannon, and fifty thousand men, and surrendered the half of his dominions and four million sterling.

The kingdom of Tippoo Saib was bounded on the north, by the territory of Paishwa, on the south by that of Travancore, on the east by a ridge of mountains which formed the boundary to the domain of the Nabob of Arcot, and on the west by the ocean. In 1790 the scene of

action extended no farther than the Ghats, but in the ensuing year Lord Cornwallis, accompanied by general Abercrombie, took possession of Bangalore, and they continued their march to the very gates of Seringapatam; but they had scarcely reached the walls before the periodical rains commenced, the river Caverry rose considerably in consequence, the works for the siege were destroyed, an epidemic disease prevailed among the cattle, and the horrors of famine threatened the besieging army. No moment was to be neglected, the artillery was abandoned, and the forces fell back on Bangalore; in this retreat the English were assisted with supplies by the natives in alliance, especially by the Soubah of Deccan, and by the Mahrattas; they were soon enabled to resume hostilities, they took several forts, and among these Nundydroog, which rising to the elevation of seven thousand five hundred feet, seemed to smile above the clouds on its pigmy opponents. The attack on Kestdagery was not equally successful; Tippoo himself covered the face of the country with his cavalry, and successfully invested the town of Coimbatore.

The kingdoms of Mysore and Canara, were defended by the rock Savendroog, darting upward in the range of country between Bangalore and Seringapatam. It was called the rock of death, and consisted of two summits of the height of three thousand feet, intersected by a profound abyss; the base of the rock was three leagues in circuit; the expedients of art were employed wherever nature seemed to have sacrificed strength to convenience. The garrison, too confident of security, reposed on their arms; the assault was suddenly commenced, and in one hour the British flag displayed on the eminence, struck terror and confusion into the adjacent country.

Lord Cornwallis having accomplished this important object, collected the whole force of the allies in the neighbourhood of Hoolendroog, with the exception of the Bombay troops. Tippoo had placed himself on the intermediate ground to the west to protect his capital; he was attacked, defeated, and driven beneath the walls of Seringapatam: Lord Cornwallis precipitately advanced and made a lodgment on the island; on the 16th Feb. the Bombay army under General Abercrombie, joined the allies and took its station to the north west of the city. On the 21st, Tippoo made a desperate sally during the night, and three days afterwards, when the preparations for a general assault had been made, he acceded to the pacification, sacrificing a great extent of domain, surrendering all his prisoners, paying the British power three crores and thirty lacks of rupees, and delivering over his two sons as hostages until the conditions of the treaty should be fulfilled. After these important services rendered to his country, Lord Cornwallis returned home, leaving in India, an example of economy, moderation, and humanity, blended with all the brilliant qualifications of the soldier and the statesman, which we hope will be imitated by every succeeding governor of this gigantic offspring of the British throne.

Lord Cornwallis attained the dignity of a marquise in Oct. 1792: he was raised to the rank of general from that of lieutenant-general, in the same month of the succeeding year, and having distinguished himself in the eastern and western world, by that conduct which obtained him the respect and confidence of his prince, and of his country, he was now called upon to act on a theatre much nearer home.

Henry II. who made all the princes of ancient Cambria tributary, also conquered Ireland; a little more than two centuries afterwards, under Richard II. Ireland revolted; she again returned to dependance, and nearly a century afterwards in the time of Henry VII. she was incorporated with the English government by Poyning's law. The reformation that was introduced under Henry VIII. was partial and temporary in

Ireland, and insurrections were occasioned in the reign of Elizabeth his daughter a little before her death: the massacre in the middle of the seventeenth century, and the part the inhabitants of the sister island took during the inter-regnum is well known; they were faithful to the same cause under James II. but the battle of the Boyne terminated all their hopes, and they continued in a state of uneasy subjection, from the accession of the house of Hanover, to the time of the American and French revolutions. If they were silent, they were not subdued; the most virtuous among the natives considered the abolition of tithes, the emancipation of the catholics, and the reform of their parliament, to be necessary to the public good; and the mild government of the house of Brunswick led them to expect the attainment of those important objects. The delay for four years, previously to the appointment of lord Fitzwilliam, gave them uneasiness; but this instantly disappeared on his landing at the beginning of 1795, in the important official capacity assigned to him. Administration recalled this virtuous and patriotic nobleman; he was succeeded by lord Camden; and every friend either of England or Ireland, regretted the change. Symptoms of dissatisfaction began to appear, and in March 1795, the insurrection first was passed in the Irish parliament to establish military law. This last measure produced that alarm; which multiplied the seeds of dissatisfaction in every province; and Mr. Arthur O'Connor and Lord Edward Fitzgerald were employed by the rebels in 1796, to negotiate an invasion with general Hoche, which was unavoidably postponed by the victory of Admiral Duncan, over the fleet of Holland.

Lord Moira, and Mr. Fox, sensible of the pains under which Ireland groaned, and of the dangers to which her despair exposed both countries, applied to parliament that her grievances might be redressed, and that the military tyranny might be abolished: "I know no way" said Mr. Fox, "of governing mankind, but by conciliating them." They pleaded in vain; in consequence, new treasons were practised on the one side, and the tortures of the inquisition, known by the milder name of "the question" were inflicted on the other. The humane and gallant Abercrombie, ashamed of the excesses of the military, proclaimed its want of discipline; he was instantly recalled, and was succeeded by general Lake. On the 30th of March 1798, a proclamation was issued declaring a conspiracy; on the 18th of April, general Duff established military law, and on the 21st. of May, the two Sheares, students at the Irish bar, were seized only forty eight hours before a general insurrection was to have taken place, when the castle of Dublin was designed to have been assaulted; the camp of Longulins town to have been attacked, and the park of artillery to have been secured by the insurgents. Mr. Arthur O'Connor was taken the 26th of May. Before matters were carried to extremity, lord Moira, unsuccessful in the British parliament, made one attempt in the Irish house of peers to produce conciliation; the bishop of Down supported his proposal, and asserted the rights of Ireland with force and dignity. Earl Clare, and the adherents of the court opposed, and this last effort became ineffectual. The rebellion in consequence was open and avowed, and priests rode among the ranks and animated the courage of the deluded multitude. Ross, Arklow, and Enniscorthy were alternately disgraced by the unequal conflict; at the latter place, twenty thousand rebels were encountered by the royal army, on the 21st of June; the former fled in every direction; no quarter was given, and the carnage was dreadful.

On the preceding day marquis Cornwallis arrived at Dublin: had he been appointed to his charge a little earlier, the long series of enormity would not have been exhibited, and the vanquished prostrate at the feet of his

conqueror would not have been silenced by the sword. The pacific virtues not more than the military talents of marquis Cornwallis restored repose in his new government. Toward the conclusion of the year, the French who had lost the golden opportunity again attempted invasion, and general Humbert, with a handful of men, took possession of Castlebar; being joined by a few straggling Irish he defeated general Lake, in an engagement wherein the English lost eight hundred men and ten pieces of cannon. The French after the success advanced on Tuam; marquis Cornwallis marched in person against them with a considerable force, on which they retreated, but at Ballinamuck he fell in with the rear of the invaders, who after a short but gallant resistance surrendered, and the astonishment of the English army was prodigious, when they found the number of their brave opponents was only eight hundred and forty-four, including officers and attendants of every description. The little garrison under Charost left by general Humbert after conducting themselves with great courage and honour, resigned the possession of Killybeg, and not a single act of depredation was found to have been committed; even the plate of the bishop's palace was considered sacred. In October the unsuccessful expedition of the French to Bentry Bay took place, when admiral Warren captured the *Hoché* and six French frigates. No subsequent attempt was made from France, the hope of the insurgents of foreign co-operation entirely ceased; and although much was done by administration to irritate Ireland and little to conciliate, yet the mild and equable government of the lord lieutenant the wisdom of his councils and his military fame, established authority, restored order, revived confidence, and practically explained this great truth, that bad laws under a wise and mild administration are less injurious than the best under the controul of tyrants and oppressors.

On the return of marquis Cornwallis, the last viceroy of the sister kingdom he was appointed to, a new duty justly considered of high importance: not the defence of colonies in the western world, not the protection of possessions in the eastern, not to check civil commotion in a dependant island, but to guard the English territory itself from hostile invasion, and to preserve the capital of the empire, menaced by the victorious armies of France returned from the plains of Europe, and directing their collective strength against this country. However vainly Englishmen have been accustomed to boast of the impracticability of invasion in modern times, an able and intelligent officer has shewn the feasibility and the probability of its success; and ministers were so far convinced of it, that they appointed the most fortunate admiral to defend the seas, and the most experienced general to protect the shores; and the means they employed will have this good effect, that on any future occasion this dangerous self-confidence will be shaken, and the system of defence so wisely planned by marquis Cornwallis will form the basis on which to erect our future security. These plans do not depend on the structure of castles extensive fortifications, and the slow preparations of the architect, but on those measures which may be put into immediate execution, on embankments for the artillery, on military stations judiciously selected, on interior regulations for collecting and removing the forage of the country, and for the transport of military bodies with the velocity of an ordinary express. The final arrangement of the preliminaries of peace concluded his lordship's duties in this new command; ministers again found occasion for his lordship's versatile and comprehensive talents, he exchanged the truncheon and the military habit for the robes of diplomacy, and on the 27th of March concluded the definitive treaty, which has restored peace to his country.

L. A. W.

WE have already expressed, in the prospectus of this periodical work, that it is our intention to introduce those law cases which are of peculiar interest, and which materially affect the commercial intercourse of the country. The usual channels through which legal information is obtained, are so irregular and circuitous, and the decisions often depend on distinctions so minute that if we occasionally wait until the case be fairly stated for the general information of the bar, we shall think it preferable to giving it in a crude and incorrect state, and under such circumstances we trust our readers will require no apology for the delay.

ANNUITY.

Ex parte MAXWELL.—This was to set aside an annuity of 20l. A rule was granted, calling on the executors of John Broomhead, deceased, to shew cause why the bond, warrant of attorney, and indenture given to secure an annuity, should not be delivered up to be cancelled, and why the annuity thereby granted should not be set aside.

Mr. Dampier shewed cause, and he relied on these circumstances to explain, that the court should not interfere to set aside the annuity which had been long granted, and to which no objection had been raised until the death of the grantee, who was alone competent to give the particulars of the transaction. He stated that the annuity was regularly paid for six years after such decease. That at the time of the sale of the annuity, and for three years afterwards, the deponent was living apart from his father, as clerk to another person, and was not present at or privy to the transaction. That the other executors of his father never acted, and were also unacquainted with what passed at the time of the purchase of the annuity.

Messrs. Garrow and Wigley said, in support of the rule, that the payment of the annuity for a few years should not preclude the grantor from shewing a defect of consideration: that distressed persons made often improvident bargains when they were not in a situation to maintain their own rights, and that they should not be prevented from doing so at a future opportunity.

The Lord Chief Justice discharged the rule; his Lordship said, that from 1794 until 1800 the annuity was regularly paid without objection, and shall not be impeached for a supposed defect of consideration which might have been explained by the grantee if living. He farther observed that an annuity paid without objection for more than six years, shall be protected by the analogy to the statute of limitation against any such objection *dehors* the memorial, without strong reason to the contrary.

BANKRUPTCY—RESCINDING OF CONTRACT.

NEATE v. BALL.—This case concerns the restoration of goods by an insolvent person, with the view to favour an individual creditor. The arguments went to a considerable length by the Attorney General and Mr. Hovell, for the rule, and by Messrs. Erskine, Gibbs, and Scarlett, against it. The Judges also gave their opinion fully on the general facts, and on the ground on which the rule was discharged.

A dealer orders some bags of wool of defendants (merchants) in December, which are delivered on the 19th of February following, and by agreement between the parties the dealer has the option of returning the wool for which he has no call, though previously ordered. The dealer being from home when the bags were delivered, on his return the same day,

day, gives directions not to have them opened or entered in his books, but only weighed off to see that they agreed with the invoice. He being then in embarrassed circumstances, and intending not to take them into the account of his stock, if in the event he found himself unable to pursue his business. Afterwards, on the 4th and 5th of March, being then avowedly insolvent, he returns the bags with a letter to the merchant declaring his situation, and hoping that they will have no objection to take back the wool, and requesting a line of approbation thereof, which letter is received and the approbation given, after an act of bankruptcy committed on the same day the letter was sent. Such are the facts, and it was held, that by the dealer keeping possession of the goods so long, his option, (which ought to have been exercised on the receipt of them) was gone; and that being in a state of insolvency, and on the eve of a bankruptcy, he could not exercise the power of restoring the goods to the vendors, though without any fraudulent concert with them; but that the trader's assignees are entitled to the property.

TRESPASS. LANDLORD AND TENANT.—FIXTURES.

PENTON v. ROBERT.—The cases we introduce on the present occasion are not less valuable because they are amongst the last decisions of the late venerable Chief Justice. The law in favour of landlords had met with a construction extremely rigid to the tenant: the vast increase of what is called in law chattel property, in consequence of the extensive commerce of the country, has considered this moveable and transferable right as of considerable importance in our courts of justice. At the trial before Lord Kenyon, chief justice at Westminster, it appeared that certain land had been let for a term by Penton to one Gray, whose executors had let off part to one Cotterell, under whom Robert was in possession as an under-tenant; having had permission from Cotterell to erect a building thereon, for the purpose of making varnish: this building had a brick foundation let into the ground, with a chimney belonging to it, upon which a superstructure of wood, brought from another place where Robert had carried on his business, was raised, in which the said Robert carried on his trade. The original term expired at Michaelmas, 1800, in consequence of a proper notice to quit given by Penton to the executors of Gray, (and it was admitted that the said Penton had recovered judgment in the ejectment against Robert for these very premises, though that fact was not proved at the trial) but Robert remained in possession for some time afterwards, and was in fact in the possession of the premises at the time when he pulled down the wooden superstructure, and carried away the materials, which was the subject of the present action. A verdict was taken for Penton, subject to the question—Whether Robert was warranted in pulling down the building, and taking away the materials after the expiration of the term? A rule nisi had been obtained on a former day for entering a verdict for Robert, as to all but the trespass confessed of breaking and entering the yard.

It was held by the Lord Chief and Justice Laurence that such plea was sustained by shewing that the building taken away, which was of wood, was erected by him, as a tenant of the premises, on a foundation of brick, for the purpose of carrying on his trade; and that he still continued in possession of the premises at the time when he pulled down the superstructure, though the term was then expired. "Here (said lord Kenyon) the defendant did no more than he had a right to do; he was in fact still in possession of the premises at the time the things were taken away, and therefore there is no pretence to say that he had abandoned his right to them."

PARLIAMENTARY REGISTER.

THE general subjects which were submitted to the legislature between the 6th of March and the 23d of the last month, were, in the House of Lords, Crewe's divorce bill, the civil list, the election of Irish peers, the debtor and creditor bill, the four and a half per cents, and the thanks to the army, navy, militia, and fencibles. In the House of Commons: the finances of Ireland, the vaccine inoculation, the supply, the income tax, the treating act, the coroners, the Irish petitions, the Irish supply, the civil list, the duchy of Cornwall, the bank of England, the slave trade, the committee of supply, the budget, the non-residence of the clergy, and the thanks to the military and the navy, as in the House of Lords.

On the 24th of March the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved the order of the day for the house to resolve itself into a committee of supply. The first resolution proposed

referred to the interest of exchequer bills funded last year 505,520 9 1
The next was for the salaries of commissioners for reducing the national debt 2,865 0 0

He further moved for one third of an annuity of £19,000 144,611 2 0
ceded by the Duke of Richmond

For the allowance to the clerks of the exchequer for extra trouble 500 0 0

For the bank of England for discount on prompt payment, of the loan and lottery for 1801 458,514 8 6

Further, for the bank of England for receiving the contributions on the loan, and for expences on the lottery of 1801 23,562 3 4

For paying off exchequer bills issued in consequence of an act of the last session 1,000,000 0 0

Besides the preceding, Mr. Addington proposed three other resolutions; the first was granting a sum of money to pay off the exchequer bills, which was issued three years ago, and were now in the possession of the bank of England. The next was to indemnify Earl St. Vincent and Lord Grey from the consequences of the adjudication against them in the admiralty court, for having detained neutral vessels at the French West India Islands. This sum was 45,332 17 6

The last resolution was for the deficiency in the estimated duty of 1,100,000*l.* for exports and imports, and for tonnage of ships in 1801 410,000 0 0

A further step would be necessary to make good the deficiency of the convoy duty, in consequence of the peace, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer gave notice, that he had in contemplation the renewal of the convoy duty under certain regulations, which had met with the approbation of the British merchants.

The first resolution being moved, a short debate took place, after which it was put and agreed to; the others then underwent the same form, and met with the same success; as also the motions of the Secretary at War for defraying the expences of the embodied militia in Great Britain, from the 25th of March to the 24th of May, 1802, inclusive 238,000 0 0

For the embodied militia of Ireland for the same time 135,695 0 0

Having explained these items in the account, we shall render the subject more correctly understood, if, instead of giving a detail of the debates, we arrange, without any interruption of that kind, the supplies stated by the Minister

Minister to be required, and the ways and means he has suggested to answer the public engagement; these were given in on the 5th of the last month.

Navy.—Exclusive of the ordnance for service 7,770,834 0 0

Army.—Great Britain 6,188,204 0 0 } 7,708,334 10 5

Ireland 1,520,130 10 5

Ordnance.—Great Britain 839,166 0 0 } 954,166 0 0

Ireland 125,000 0 0

Miscellaneous.—Great Britain 200,482 0 0 } 423,689 15 9½

Ireland 163,207 15 9½

Reduction of the national debt 200,000 0 0

Corn bounties 1,622,018 0 0

Deficiencies of malt duty, 1800 400,000 0 0

Interest on exchequer bills discounted on loan, &c. as per disposition paper 1,137,073 0 0

To pay off exchequer bills in possession of the bank 3,000,000 0 0

Deficiency of 1,200,000l. voted for the service of 1801, out of the duties on goods imported and exported 410,000 0 0

Amount of civil list debt 990,053 0 0

Making the sum already voted in the committee of supply 24,614,430 6 5½

The Budget.—Whereof the amount of sums voted for

Great Britain 22,806,092 0 0

Ireland 1,808,338 10 5

24,614,430 0 0

Ways and Means.—Duties on pensions, offices, &c. and malt duties 2,750,000 0 0

Surplus subscription on exchequer bills funded 1,808,338 10 5

Loan to be provided for by Great Britain (2,300,000) 2,300,000 0 0

Ireland 2,000,000 0 0

27,930,874 0 0

Amount of ways and means voted on or before April 5 27,930,874 0 0

Mem.—Remains to be voted surplus consolidated fund to 5th of January 1805

Exchequer bills on supplies, 1803.

Lottery.—Loan to be contracted in Ireland.

Stock created by loan 1803 capital stock interest

Three per cent. consol. ann. 14,950,000 0 0 01

Three per cent. reduced ann. 13,800,000 0 0 11

Three per cent. deferred stock to be added to consols 1,671,375 0 0 21

30,351,375 0 0 11

Interest on the consols. and reduced 862,500 0 0

Ditto on the deferred stock, from Jan. 5, 1808 48,041 5 0

Management on the whole 13,658 0 0

Stock created by ex. b. fund 11,138,062 10 0

Interest, together with 5,796 12 10½ long ann. 431,043 0 14

One pound per cent. thereon 112,222 10 6

Management 5,099 14 6

Stock charged on income duties 56,445,000 0 0

Interest thereon 1,713,016 13 14

Management on ditto 35,621 10 0

97,934,437 10 0 3,311,203 0 0

The above charge to be defrayed by the following taxes: *£* 1,000,000 0 0

Malt and beer *£* 2,000,000 0 0

Assessed taxes *£* 1,000,000 0 0

Duty on exports and imports *£* 1,000,000 0 0

£ 4,000,000 0 0

New Taxes agreed to in the resolutions of the committee of ways and means April 5th. *£* 1,000,000 0 0

Beer.—That the rates on beer or ale, of the price of 13s. or under per barrel, shall cease: *£* 1,000,000 0 0

That for every barrel of table beer of 16s. the barrel, or under, brewed by a brewer, or other person, there shall be paid, exclusive of the excise duties, a duty of per barrel *£* 1 0 0

For every barrel of beer or ale above 16s. the barrel, an additional *£* 1 0 0

Upon every barrel of twopenny ale Scots *£* 0 10 0

Upon every barrel of Irish beer or ale imported *£* 0 6 0

Upon every barrel of beer, ale, or mum imported, except from Ireland, an additional *£* 12 11 0

Upon every barrel of strong beer exported, there shall be a drawback of *£* 6 0 0

Hops.—Upon every pound weight of hops grown in Great Britain, an additional *£* 1 8 20th

Upon every pound of hops imported from Ireland *£* 1 8 20th

Upon every pound of hops exported to Ireland a drawback of *£* 1 8 20th

Spirits.—Upon every gallon of spirits imported from Ireland *£* 2 1 0

Malt.—Upon every bushel of malt *£* 1 0 0

Houses.—Upon houses of 5l. a year, and under 20l. an additional duty of *£* 0 8 0

20l. and under 40l. *£* 1 0 0

40l. and upwards *£* 1 0 0

Windows.—Upon houses (except such as are rated at 5l. per year) containing 6 windows, an additional duty of *£* 0 1 6

Upon houses rated at 5l. per year and upwards, containing 6 windows, an additional duty of *£* 0 2 0

Upon every house containing not more than 7 windows, an additional duty of *£* 0 4 0

Ditto 8 *£* 0 9 0

Ditto 9 *£* 0 11 0

Ditto 10 *£* 0 13 0

Ditto 11 *£* 0 15 0

Ditto 12 *£* 1 4 0

Ditto 13 *£* 1 7 0

Ditto 14 *£* 1 10 0

Ditto 15 *£* 1 13 0

Ditto 16 *£* 1 16 0

Ditto 17 *£* 1 19 0

Ditto 18 *£* 2 2 0

Ditto 19 *£* 2 5 0

Ditto 20 *£* 2 8 0

Ditto 21 *£* 2 11 0

Ditto 22 *£* 2 14 0

Ditto 23 *£* 2 17 0

Ditto 24 *£* 3 0 0

Ditto 25 *£* 3 3 0

Ditto 26 *£* 3 6 0

Ditto 27 *£* 3 9 0

Ditto 28 *£* 3 12 0

Ditto 29 *£* 3 15 0

Ditto 30 *£* 3 18 0

Ditto 31 *£* 3 21 0

Ditto 32 *£* 3 24 0

Ditto 33 *£* 3 27 0

Ditto 34 *£* 3 30 0

Ditto 35 *£* 3 33 0

Ditto 36 *£* 3 36 0

Ditto 37 *£* 3 39 0

Ditto 38 *£* 3 42 0

Ditto 39 *£* 3 45 0

Ditto 40 *£* 3 48 0

Ditto 41 *£* 3 51 0

Ditto 42 *£* 3 54 0

Ditto 43 *£* 3 57 0

Ditto 44 *£* 4 0 0

Ditto 45 *£* 4 3 0

Ditto 46 *£* 4 6 0

Ditto 47 *£* 4 9 0

Ditto 48 *£* 4 12 0

Ditto 49 *£* 4 15 0

Ditto 50 *£* 4 18 0

Ditto 51 *£* 4 21 0

Ditto 52 *£* 4 24 0

Ditto 53 *£* 4 27 0

Ditto 54 *£* 4 30 0

Ditto 55 *£* 4 33 0

Ditto 56 *£* 4 36 0

Ditto 57 *£* 4 39 0

Ditto 58 *£* 4 42 0

Ditto 59 *£* 4 45 0

Ditto 60 *£* 4 48 0

Ditto 61 *£* 4 51 0

Ditto 62 *£* 4 54 0

Ditto 63 *£* 4 57 0

Ditto 64 *£* 5 0 0

Ditto 65 *£* 5 3 0

Ditto 66 *£* 5 6 0

Ditto 67 *£* 5 9 0

Ditto 68 *£* 5 12 0

Ditto 69 *£* 5 15 0

Ditto 70 *£* 5 18 0

Ditto 71 *£* 5 21 0

Ditto 72 *£* 5 24 0

Ditto 73 *£* 5 27 0

Ditto 74 *£* 5 30 0

Ditto 75 *£* 5 33 0

Ditto 76 *£* 5 36 0

Ditto 77 *£* 5 39 0

Ditto 78 *£* 5 42 0

Ditto 79 *£* 5 45 0

Ditto 80 *£* 5 48 0

Ditto 81 *£* 5 51 0

Ditto 82 *£* 5 54 0

Ditto 83 *£* 5 57 0

Ditto 84 *£* 6 0 0

Ditto 85 *£* 6 3 0

Ditto 86 *£* 6 6 0

Ditto 87 *£* 6 9 0

Ditto 88 *£* 6 12 0

Ditto 89 *£* 6 15 0

Ditto 90 *£* 6 18 0

Ditto 91 *£* 6 21 0

Ditto 92 *£* 6 24 0

Ditto 93 *£* 6 27 0

Ditto 94 *£* 6 30 0

Ditto 95 *£* 6 33 0

Ditto 96 *£* 6 36 0

Ditto 97 *£* 6 39 0

Ditto 98 *£* 6 42 0

Ditto 99 *£* 6 45 0

Ditto 100 *£* 6 48 0

Ditto 101 *£* 6 51 0

Ditto 102 *£* 6 54 0

Ditto 103 *£* 6 57 0

Ditto 104 *£* 7 0 0

Ditto 105 *£* 7 3 0

Ditto 106 *£* 7 6 0

Ditto 107 *£* 7 9 0

Ditto 108 *£* 7 12 0

Ditto 109 *£* 7 15 0

Ditto 110 *£* 7 18 0

Ditto 111 *£* 7 21 0

Ditto 112 *£* 7 24 0

Ditto 113 *£* 7 27 0

Ditto 114 *£* 7 30 0

Ditto 115 *£* 7 33 0

Ditto 116 *£* 7 36 0

Ditto 117 *£* 7 39 0

Ditto 118 *£* 7 42 0

Ditto 119 *£* 7 45 0

Ditto 120 *£* 7 48 0

Ditto 121 *£* 7 51 0

Ditto 122 *£* 7 54 0

Ditto 123 *£* 7 57 0

Ditto 124 *£* 8 0 0

Ditto 125 *£* 8 3 0

Ditto 126 *£* 8 6 0

Ditto 127 *£* 8 9 0

Ditto 128 *£* 8 12 0

Ditto 129 *£* 8 15 0

Ditto 130 *£* 8 18 0

Ditto 131 *£* 8 21 0

Ditto 132 *£* 8 24 0

Ditto 133 *£* 8 27 0

Ditto 134 *£* 8 30 0

Ditto 135 *£* 8 33 0

Ditto 136 *£* 8 36 0

Ditto 137 *£* 8 39 0

Ditto 138 *£* 8 42 0

Ditto 139 *£* 8 45 0

Ditto 140 *£* 8 48 0

Ditto 141 *£* 8 51 0

Ditto 142 *£* 8 54 0

Ditto 143 *£* 8 57 0

Ditto 144 *£* 9 0 0

Ditto 145 *£* 9 3 0

Ditto 146 *£* 9 6 0

Ditto 147 *£* 9 9 0

Ditto 148 *£* 9 12 0

Ditto 149 *£* 9 15 0

Ditto 150 *£* 9 18 0

Ditto 151 *£* 9 21 0

Ditto 152 *£* 9 24 0

Ditto 153 *£* 9 27 0

Ditto 154 *£* 9 30 0

Ditto 155 *£* 9 33 0

Ditto 156 *£* 9 36 0

Ditto 157 *£* 9 39 0

Ditto 158 *£* 9 42 0

Ditto 159 *£* 9 45 0

Ditto 160 *£* 9 48 0

Ditto 161 *£* 9 51 0

Ditto 162 *£* 9 54 0

Ditto 163 *£* 9 57 0

Ditto 164 *£* 10 0 0

Ditto 165 *£* 10 3 0

Ditto 166 *£* 10 6 0

Ditto 167 *£* 10 9 0

Ditto 168 *£* 10 12 0

Ditto 169 *£* 10 15 0

Ditto 170 *£* 10 18 0

Ditto 171 *£* 10 21 0

Ditto 172 *£* 10 24 0

Ditto 173 *£* 10 27 0

Ditto 174 *£* 10 30 0

Ditto 175 *£* 10 33 0

Ditto 176 *£* 10 36 0

Ditto 177 *£* 10 39 0

Ditto 178 *£* 10 42 0

Ditto 179 *£* 10 45 0

Ditto 180 *£* 10 48 0

Ditto 181 *£* 10 51 0

Ditto 182 *£* 10 54 0

Ditto 183 *£* 10 57 0

Ditto 184 *£* 11 0 0

Ditto 185 *£* 11 3 0

Ditto 186 *£* 11 6 0

Ditto 187 *£* 11 9 0

Ditto 188 *£* 11 12 0

Ditto 189 *£* 11 15 0

Ditto 190 *£* 11 18 0

Ditto 191 *£* 11 21 0

Ditto 192 *£* 11 24 0

Ditto 193 *£* 11 27 0

Ditto 194 *£* 11 30 0

Ditto 195 *£* 11 33 0

Ditto 196 *£* 11 36 0

Ditto 197 *£* 11 39 0

Upon every house containing 75 windows and not more than 70, an additional duty of 13 0 0

Ditto	80	84	11	10	0	Ditto	110	119	18	9	0
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1840	85	84	13	19	0	1840	130	139	1	1
Ditto	85	89	14	0	0	Ditto	140	149	10	0

Ditto	33	39	14	9	0	Ditto	145	145		
Ditto	00	04	14	10	0	Ditto	150	155	20	5

Ditto	95	94	14	19	0	Ditto	131	133	21	0
Ditto	95	99	15	0	0	Ditto	160	169	21	0

Ditto 93	99	15	9	0	Ditto 100	100	22	9	0
Ditto 100	100	15	19	0	Ditto 170	179	22	9	0

Ditto 100	109	13	19	0	Ditto 170	179	19	19	0
Ditto 110	119	16	9	0	Ditto 180 and upwards	22	12	0	0

Ditto	110	119	18	7	0
Ditto	120	120	17	6	0

Male Servants.—Upon every person who shall keep one male

servant an additional 0 10 0

2 Ditto	each	0 8 0	7 Ditto	ditto	0 1 0
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3 Ditto ditto 0 6 0 1 Ditto ditto 1 1 0

4	Ditto	ditto	0 14 0	9	Ditto	ditto	Has 1 1/2 1/2
---	-------	-------	--------	---	-------	-------	---------------

5	Ditto	ditto	0	16	0	10	Ditto	ditto	1	6	0
---	-------	-------	---	----	---	----	-------	-------	---	---	---

6	Ditto	ditto	0 18 0	11	Ditto	ditto	1 10 0
---	-------	-------	--------	----	-------	-------	--------

For every servant or journeyman who shall board in his master's

house

Carriages.—That every person who shall keep any coach, berlin, chariot, landau, chariot chaise marine, chaise with four wheels, or caisson, or any number thereof, for his or her own use, or let out to hire, shall be charged with the several additional yearly sums following:

For 1 carriage	0	8	0	6	Ditto	ditto	1	18	0
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1 Ditto	each	0 16	0	7 Ditto	ditto	3 06
---------	------	------	---	---------	-------	------

3	Ditto	ditto	0	18	0	8	Ditto	ditto	2	18	0
---	-------	-------	---	----	---	---	-------	-------	---	----	---

3 Ditto	ditto	1 2 0	9 Ditto	ditto	1 6 0
4 Ditto	ditto	1 2 0	9 Ditto	ditto	1 6 0

Ditto	dito	1	0	0
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The duties of the 38 of George III. on charts, &c. with two

or three wheels are to cease, and such chairs, &c. that go

with one horse to pay

But if two or more horses be used

Horses.—For riding or drawing, additional for one

If two be kept for each

For horses not charged for riding or drawing, additional for each o 3 6

Dogs.—For those who keep two or more dogs, of whatever kind,

additional for each

RETROSPECT OF POLITICS

TURKEY

THIS empire, two thousand miles in extent from east to west, and of nearly equal dimensions from its northern to its southern boundary, endangered by the debility of the Divan, and by the strength of the provincial bashaws, is likely to become the theatre of a new war. Hostilities will probably terminate in the surrender of the capital of the eastern empire, of the most fertile provinces of sovereign Rome, and of the classic ground of ancient Greece, to the continental powers of Europe, by which France will, perhaps, obtain that portion of African territory, which by the intrigues of her policy, and the courage of her arms, she has in vain attempted to acquire.

ITALY.

There was a period in the history of Europe, even within the limits of the present reign, when the balance of political power was considered as of some importance; and when our statesmen affected to speak with the same precision of the deviations from this equipoise, as the chemist of the spa.

cific gravities of the subjects of his art. It is most humiliating to the philosopher and the moralist to observe the levity and versatility of modern politicians in this particular. A few years since, a rivulet or a bog was contested between rival states with the utmost pertinacity, lest a preponderance should be given to obstruct this boasted equilibrium. At this time the most powerful government of Europe has been permitted to allure within its vortex the extensive and luxuriant provinces of Italy; and to contrive, without interference, the colonization of a large portion of the Saracenic empire. Whatever may be the real interest of the Italian republic, it continues in a state of complete subservience to its Gallic neighbours.

FRANCE.

After the foreign and intestine war, in which the republic has been engaged for so long a period, we need not wonder at symptoms of interior irregularity and disorganization.

Et ubi solitudinem faciunt pacem appellant—was the expression of a writer on the affairs of that country in very remote times. To classic allusions we are unavoidably led by the description of the destructive wolf in the *Commune de l'Entre Deux Mers*, who, like the bristly hero of Ovid's numbers, has destroyed so many competitors for sanguinary fame. Whatever may be the desolate condition of *Les Landes* or of *La Vendée*, in every other part of the country the spirit of improvement prevails. Trade is reviving, and confidence gradually extending; the port of *Marseilles*, the depôt of commercial treasure in ancient and modern times, is receiving considerable benefit from the skill of the engineer, and the wealth of the country begins to be applied to the resuscitation of the national manufactures, and to the encouragement of productive industry, in every department of public and private utility. It has been observed, with great justice, that if the social and moral ties with the French people, by the irregularities consequent on war, rapine, and general violence, have been relaxed to restore peace, order, and discipline in the domestic intercourse and private relations of life, a system of ecclesiastical regulation has been proposed, which does honour to the liberality of the existing government, and which, in the generosity of its principles, has exhibited a splendid example for the imitation of the protestant states of Europe.

GERMANY.

The movements of the other branches of the quadruple alliance, formed for the partition of the Ottoman empire, are more doubtful and tardy; but in the states of Austria great exertion is employed in the military departments, and large detachments are advancing from the different provinces, toward the projected scene of action. The spirit of conciliation, dictated by some political motives, prevails in the court of Vienna toward those native princes, who have so long expected indemnifications for their losses during the late war; and Count Colloredo has been dispatched to Ratisbon for the final arrangement of those complicated affairs. The convention of the diet of Hungary, for the observance of some customary ceremonials, has been postponed for a few weeks.

RUSSIA.

Independently of the great project we have alluded to, (which was so long the favorite scheme of Catherine II.) nothing very material has acquired public notoriety in the councils of the court of Petersburg. The Czar has ordered a mandate to be issued for the reduction of the expences of the imperial establishment; and motives of policy, with respect to the interior of the government of Lithuania, have occasioned the concentration of the civil authorities at Wilna to be abandoned, and therefore Grodno is also appointed for the occasional meeting of the delegated powers, for the administration of public affairs in that recent accession to the Russian dominions.

An affair of the first consequence to commerce has attracted the attention of government for the regulation of weights and measures, by establishing one uniform standard throughout this vast empire.

SPAIN.

This kingdom appears to occupy itself in a very small degree in the general politics of Europe; it resigns itself patiently to the pecuniary losses it has suffered in consequence of the war, and rejoices in perfect self-sufficiency for the feats in arms it has achieved, and the tracts of territory it has acquired from the neighbouring power on her western border. If she be indifferent to foreign affairs, she is not wholly negligent in economic arrangements: agricultural societies are encouraged, and rewards are proposed to diffuse useful knowledge, and to extend the limits of cultivation in her luxuriant climate.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The final arrangement of the definitive treaty of peace with the government of France, is certainly the most important and prominent transaction of the preceding month. During the negotiation, France has entangled in the political net she had so skilfully woven, the Italian republic, and a part of Switzerland and Holland, has continued exposed to the same snares; perhaps, in consequence of the "imposing attitude" she has by these means been enabled to assume, the English government has been constrained to submit to some little relaxation of the line drawn in the preliminaries. Malta has not been placed under the protection of a third state: the conditions, with respect to the prisoners of war, have not been precisely adhered to, and the integrity of Portugal has not been preserved. It was expected that a commercial treaty would have been considered in the arrangements; it was, however, signified on the part of France, from high authority, during the negotiation, that no such plan was meditated by the Chief Consul; and we attribute to the impression of some disappointment of this kind, Lord Hawkebury's declaration of the inutility of commercial treaties, so contrary to the principles of his official predecessors, and to his own.

By this versatility, we are reminded of the *vulpes et urs* of Phædrus; but if we are disposed to smile at it, in the little incidents of private life, when applied to public affairs, the derision this spirit of accommodation excites borders on contempt. The ministers of this country should know that the Chief Consul of France is playing an artful game; the restrictions on the imports to this country of the manufactures of France, this sagacious politician has seen with mortification; he knows the fatal blow which may be given to the west-country trade in woollen cloths, by confining the transport of Spanish wool to France; and the probability is, that he has deferred the projected treaty, until his negotiations with Spain, with Germany, and with the countries dependent on his power, should enable him to do it with the greater advantage to the republic, and with the smallest concessions to the commercial interests of this country.

In the West Indies, we presume, government has used every possible precaution to prevent those scenes of blood in our own islands, which are exhibited in the colonial possession of France in that quarter. St. Domingo is four hundred miles in length, and is almost completely surrounded by craggy rocks and dangerous shoals; its situation is therefore peculiarly favorable to resist the approach of an enemy. It is true, the French have made good their landing, have proceeded to the interior, and have alternately defeated Christophe and Toussaint L'Ouverture; yet the contests have been obstinate, and it is extremely doubtful if the consular troops will be able to maintain their ground, considering the disadvantages of climate, and in almost an infinite variety, with which they have to encounter. Whatever opposition may have been given to the armaments of France, destined for this western expedition, it is a fact sufficiently obvious to every political ob-

server,

server, that if the blacks should prevail in the Caribbees, the extensive possessions of Great Britain in the West Indies will be held on a very precarious tenure.

With regard to the loan, an advantageous moment was seized for the bargain, an open competition was admitted, and whatever benefit the contractors have derived, the terms, at the time the engagement was made, were eligible. The taxes for the supply of the public demand, we think are, generally speaking, regulated with judgment, and the view of the resources of the country, from some stations, is consulatory. If we do not venture to say, that the accumulated debt of this country, after the long war in which it has been engaged, will, by the ingenuity of finance, be paid off in less than half a century (as the minister has intimated) we trust with confidence to the energies and opulence of the country, and, we hope, for a gradual alleviation of the national burthens.

In directing our attention to the parliamentary proceedings of the last month, we have discerned a kind of *imperium in imperio*; a sort of combination between the late and the present administration, which we consider detrimental to the interests of this kingdom; we are happy, however, to observe, in one respect, an important difference: the whole weight of calamity during Mr. Pitt's war, arose from his interposition in the interior politics of France. It will be a satisfaction to the nation, that Mr. Addington has declared, in unequivocal terms, that no interference in the domestic transactions of other countries, shall infringe the pacific maxims of the present administration.

We have seen, with some concern, the restriction on the bank payments extended to March of the ensuing year. Notwithstanding the clamour it excited, we are of opinion that urgent necessity justified the restriction when it was first imposed; and perhaps the subsequent impediments to the payments in cash, are capable of vindication on the same ground; but now that peace is secured, and confidence is restored, we see no occasion for these procrastinations. The foreign commerce of this country and of Holland was greatly indebted for the consequence it attained, to the distinction that was scrupulously observed between the political and commercial relations. If we admit it to have been necessary that government should have interposed in the affairs of the company of the bank of England, we must at the same time acknowledge, that the political controul so exercised, was a very serious injury done to its credit, which no future success and punctuality will be able completely to redress; the first opportunity ought, therefore, to have been resorted to, to place this trading society in a state of political independence.

STATE PAPER.

Definitive Treaty of Peace between the French Republic, his Majesty the King of Spain and the Indies, and the Batavian Republic, (on the one Part); and his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (on the other Part).

THE First Consul of the French Republic, in the name of the French People, and his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being equally animated with a desire to put an end to the calamities of war, have laid the foundation of peace, by the Preliminary Articles, which were signed in London the 9th Vendémiaire, an 10, (or the 1st o. October, 1801.)

And as by the 15th Article of the Preli-

minaries it has been agreed on, that Plenipotentiaries should be named on the part of each Government, who should repair to Amiens, and there proceed to arrange a Definitive Treaty, in concert with the plenipotentiaries of the contracting Powers, who had signed the Preliminary Articles.

The First Consul of the French Republic, in the name of the French People, has named as Plenipotentiary the Citizen Joseph Buonaparte, Counsellor of State.

His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom

dom of Great Britain and Ireland has named the Marquis Cornwallis, Knight of the most noble order of the Garter, one of his Majesty's Privy Council, General in his Majesty's Army, &c. &c.

His Majesty the King of Spain and the Indies, and the Government of the Batavian Republic, have appointed the following Plenipotentiaries, to wit, his Catholic Majesty has named Don Joseph Nicolas d'Azara, his Counsellor of State, Grand Cross of the order of Charles III. Ambassador Extraordinary of his Majesty to the French Republic, &c. &c.

And the Government of the Batavian Republic has named Roger Jean Schimmelpenninck its Ambassador Extraordinary to the French Republic, &c. &c.

Which said Plenipotentiaries having duly communicated to each other their respective powers, which are transcribed at the conclusion of the present treaty, have agreed upon the following Articles.

Article I. There shall be peace, friendship, and good understanding between the French Republic, his Majesty the King of Spain, his heirs and successors, and the Batavian Republic, on the one side, and his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, his heirs and successors, on the other part.

The contracting parties shall use their utmost efforts to preserve a perfect harmony between their respective countries, without permitting any act of hostility whatever by sea or by land, for any cause, or under any pretext.

They shall carefully avoid every thing which might for the future disturb the happy union now re-established between them, and shall not give any succour or protection, directly or indirectly, to those who would wish to injure any of them.

II. All the prisoners made on one side and the other, as well by land as by sea, and the hostages carried off or delivered up during the war and up to the present day, shall be restored without ransom in six weeks at the latest, to be reckoned from the day when the ratifications of this present treaty are exchanged, and on paying the debts which they shall have contracted during their captivity. Each of the contracting parties shall respectively discharge the advances which shall have been made by any of the contracting parties for the support and maintenance of prisoners in the countries where they have been detained. There shall be appointed by mutual consent for this purpose a commission, specially empowered to ascertain and determine the compensation which may be due to any one of the contracting parties. The time and the place shall likewise be fixed by mutual consent for the meeting of the commissioners who shall be entrusted with the execution of this Article, and who shall take into account not only the expenses incurred on account of the prisoners of the respective nations,

but likewise on account of the British troops, who before being taken were in the pay and at the disposal of one of the contracting parties.

III. His Britannic Majesty restores to the French Republic and its Allies, viz. his Catholic Majesty and the Batavian Republic, all the possessions and colonies which respectively belonged to them, and which have been either occupied or conquered by the British forces during the course of the present war, with the exception of the island of Trinidad and of the Dutch possessions in the island of Ceylon.

IV. His Catholic Majesty cedes and guarantees in full property and sovereignty the island of Trinidad to his Britannic Majesty.

V. The Batavian Republic cedes and guarantees in full property and sovereignty to his Britannic Majesty all the possessions and establishments in the island of Ceylon, which, previous to the war, belonged to the Republic of the United Provinces, or to the Dutch East India Company.

VI. The port of the Cape of Good Hope remains to the Batavian Republic in full sovereignty, in the same manner as it did previous to the war.

The ships of every kind belonging to the other contracting parties shall be allowed to enter the said port, and there to purchase what provisions they may stand in need of, as heretofore, without being liable to pay any other imposts than such as the Batavian Republic compels the ships of its own nation to pay.

VII. The territories and possessions of her Most Faithful Majesty are maintained in their integrity, such as they were antecedent to the war. However, the boundaries of French and Portuguese Guiana are fixed by the river Arowary, which empties itself into the ocean above Cape North, near the islands Nuovo and Penitencia, about a degree and a third of North latitude. These boundaries shall run along the river Arowary, from its mouth, the most distant from Cape North to its source, and afterwards on a right line, drawn from that source, to the Rio Branco towards the West.

In consequence, the northern bank of the river Arowary, from its said mouth to its source, and the territories that lie to the North of the line of the boundaries laid down as above, shall belong in full sovereignty to the French Republic.

The southern bank of the said river, from the same mouth, and all the territories to the South of the said line, shall belong to her Most Faithful Majesty.

The navigation of the river Arowary, along the whole of its course, shall be common to both nations.

The arrangements which have been agreed upon between the Courts of Madrid and Lisbon, respecting the settlement of their boundaries in Europe, shall nevertheless be adhered to conformably to the stipulations of the treaty of Badajoz.

VIII. The

VIII. The territories, possessions, and rights of the Sublime Porte are maintained in their integrity, as they were before the war.

IX. The Republic of the Seven Islands is recognized.

X. The Islands of Malta, Gozo, and Comino, shall be restored to the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, to be held on the same conditions on which it possessed them before the war, and under the following stipulations:

1. The Knights of the Order, whose *Langues* shall continue to subsist, after the exchange of the ratification of the present treaty, are invited to return to Malta, as soon as the exchange shall have taken place. They shall there form a general chapter, and proceed to the election of a Grand Master, chosen from among the natives of those nations which are to preserve their *Langues*, unless that election has been already made since the exchange of the Preliminaries.

It is understood that an election made subsequent to that epoch shall alone be considered valid, to the exclusion of any other that may have taken place at any period prior to that epoch.

2. The Governments of the French Republic and of Great Britain, desiring to place the Order and Island of Malta in a state of entire independence with respect to themselves, agree that there shall not be in future either a French or an English *Langue*; and that no individual belonging to either the one or the other of these powers shall be admitted into the Order.

3. There shall be established a Maltese *Langue*, which shall be supported by the territorial revenues and commercial duties of the island. This *Langue* shall have its peculiar dignities, an establishment, and a mansion-house. Proofs of nobility shall not be necessary for the admission of Knights of this *Langue*; and they shall be moreover admissible to all offices, and shall enjoy all privileges in the same manner as the Knights of the other *Langues*. At least half of the municipal, administrative, civil, judicial, and other employments depending on the

government, shall be filled by inhabitants of the islands of Malta, Gozo, and Comino.

4. The forces of his Britannic Majesty shall evacuate the island, and its dependencies, within three months from the exchange of the ratifications, or sooner if possible. At that epoch it shall be given up to the Order in its present state, provided the Grand Master, or commissaries, fully authorized according to the statutes of the Order, shall be in the island to take possession, and that the force which is to be provided by his Sicilian Majesty, as is hereafter stipulated, shall have arrived there.

5. One-half of the garrison, at least, shall be always composed of native Maltese; for the remainder, the Order may levy recruits in those countries only which continue to possess the *Langues*. The Maltese troops shall have Maltese officers. The commandship in chief of the garrison, as well as the nomination of the officers, shall pertain to the Grand Master, and this right he cannot resign even temporarily, except in favour of a Knight, and in concurrence with the advice of the council of the Order.

6. The independence of the islands of Malta, of Gozo and Comino, as well as the present arrangement, shall be placed under the protection and guarantee of France, Great Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia.

7. The neutrality of the Order and of the island of Malta, with its dependencies, is hereby proclaimed.

8. The ports of Malta shall be opened to the commerce and the navigation of all nations, who shall there pay equal and moderate duties: these duties shall be applied to the maintenance of the Maltese *Langue*, as specified in paragraph 3, to that of the civil and military establishments of the island, as well as to that of a general lazaret, open to all colours.

9. The States of Barbary are excepted from the conditions of the preceding paragraphs, until, by means of an arrangement to be procured by the contracting parties, the system of hostilities, which subsists between the States of Barbary and the Order of St. John, or the powers possessing the

The word *Langue* may be translated by that of *Class* or *Tribe*. The Order of Malta (otherwise, and, indeed, more properly, called the Order of St. John of Jerusalem) is a religious and military association, the rules of which prescribed, that the Knights should be chosen from amongst the Catholic nobles of Europe. The whole number of them was a thousand, five hundred of whom were obliged to live in the island, while the other five hundred were permitted to be absent, and generally resided in the semiaries of the Order, in the different countries that had the privilege of sending the Knights. This privilege was enjoyed by Spain, Portugal, France, Italy, Germany, and Bavaria. The Knights were considered as consisting of eight *Classes* or *Tribes* (commonly called *Langues*) of which Spain and Portugal furnished two, Italy one, Germany one, Bavaria one, and France three. The number of Knights sent by France was, then, about three hundred and thirty-nine out of the thousand. France is now to send none; but, in lieu thereof, she creates a Maltese *Langue*. She could not, indeed, send Knights to the Order, because she does not acknowledge the Catholic religion; but, to prevent her share of influence in the affairs of the Order from passing into other hands, she creates a new *Langue* to consist of the natives of the island, though, by so doing, she destroys the constitution of the Order in dispensing with noble birth, which has always been considered as a qualification indispensably necessary.

League, or concerning in the composition of the Order, shall have ceased.

10. The Order shall be governed, both with respect to spirituals and temporal, by the same statutes which were in force when the Knights left the island, as far as the present treaty does not abrogate them.

11. The regulations contained in the paragraphs 6, 5, 7, 8, and 10, shall be converted into laws and perpetual statutes of the Order, in the customary manner; and the Grand Master, or, if he shall not be in the island at the time of its restoration to the Order, his representative, as well as his successors, shall be bound to take an oath for their punctual observance.

12. His Sicilian Majesty shall be invited to furnish 2000 men, Natives of his States, to serve as a Garrison in the different Fortresses of the said Islands. That force shall remain one year, to bear date from their restitution to the Knights; and if, at the expiration of this term, the Order should not have raised a force sufficient, in the judgment of the Guaranteeing Powers to garrison the Island and its Dependencies, as is specified in the 5th Paragraph, the Neapolitan Troops shall continue there until they shall be replaced by a Force deemed sufficient by the said Powers.

13. The different Powers designated in the 6th Paragraph, to wit, France, Great-Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia, shall be invited to accede to the present Stipulations.

XI. The French troops shall evacuate the kingdom of Naples and the Roman States; the English Forces shall also evacuate Porto Ferrajo, and generally all the Ports and Islands that they occupy in the Mediterranean or the Adriatic.

XII. The Evacuations, Cessions, and Restitutions, stipulated by the present Treaty, shall be executed in Europe within a month; on the Continent and Seas of America and Africa in three months; on the Continent and Seas of Asia in six months, which shall follow the Ratification of the present Definitive Treaty, except in case of a Special Reservation.

XIII. In all cases of Restitution, agreed upon by the present Treaty, the fortifications shall be restored in the condition they were in at the time of signing the Preliminaries; and all the works which shall have been constructed since their occupation, shall remain untouched.

It is agreed besides, that in all the stipulated cases of Cessions, there shall be allowed to the inhabitants, of whatever rank or nation they may be, a term of three years, reckoning from the notification of the present Treaty, to dispose of all their properties, whether acquired or possessed by them, before or during the continuance of the present War; during which term of three years, they shall have free and entire liberty to exercise their religion, and to enjoy their fortunes. The same power is granted in

the Countries that are hereby restored, to all persons, whether inhabitants or not, who shall have formed any establishments there, during the time that those Countries were in the possession of Great-Britain.

As to the Inhabitants of the Countries restored or ceded, it is hereby agreed, that no person shall, under any pretence, be prosecuted, disturbed, or molested, either in person or property, on account of his political conduct or opinion; or for his attachment to any of the Contracting Parties, on any account whatever, except for debts contracted with individuals, or for acts subsequent to the present Treaty.

XIV. All the Sequestrations laid on either side, on Funds, Revenues, and Credits, of what nature soever they may be, belonging to any of the Contracting Powers, or to their Citizens, or Subjects, shall be taken off immediately after the Signature of this Definitive Treaty.

The decision of all claims among the individuals of the respective nations, for debts, property, effects, or rights, of any nature whatsoever, which should, according to received usages, and the Law of Nations, be preferred at the epoch of the Peace, shall be referred to the competent Tribunals: in all those cases speedy and complete justice shall be done in the countries wherein those claims shall be respectively preferred.

XV. The Fisheries on the coasts of Newfoundland, and of the adjacent islands, and in the Gulph of St. Laurence, are placed on the same footing as they were before the War.

The French Fishermen of Newfoundland and the inhabitants of the Islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, shall have liberty to cut such wood as may be necessary for them in the Bays of Fortune and Despair during the first year, reckoning from the Ratification of the present Treaty.

XVI. To prevent all grounds of complaint and disputes which might arise on account of Captures which may have been made at sea subsequent to the signing of the Preliminaries, it is reciprocally agreed that the ships and property which may have been taken in the Channel, and in the North Seas, after a space of twelve days, reckoning from the exchange of the Ratifications of the Preliminary Articles, shall be restored on the one side and the other; that the term shall be one month for the space from the Channel and the North Seas, as far as the Canary Islands inclusively, as well in the ocean as in the Mediterranean; two months from the Canary Islands to the Equator; and, finally, five months in all the other parts of the world, without any further exception, or distinction of time or place.

XVII. The Ambassadors, Ministers, and other Agents of the Contracting Powers shall enjoy respectively in the States of the said Powers the same rank, privileges, prerogatives, and immunities which were enjoyed before the War by Agents of the same class.

XVIII. The branch of the House of Nassau, which was established in the cidevant Republic of the United Provinces, now the Batavian Republic, having experienced some losses, as well with respect to private property as by the change of Constitution adopted in those Countries, an equivalent compensation shall be procured for the losses which they shall be proved to have sustained.

XIX. The present Definitive Treaty of Peace is declared common to the Sublime Ottoman Porte, the Ally of His Britannic Majesty; and the Sublime Porte shall be invited to transmit its act of accession as soon as possible.

XX. It is agreed that the Contracting Parties, upon requisitions made by them respectively, or by their Ministers, or Officers duly authorized for that purpose, shall be bound to deliver up to justice persons accused of murder, forgery, or fraudulent bankruptcy, committed within the jurisdiction of the requiring party, provided that this shall only be done in cases in which the evidence of the crime shall be such, that the laws of the place in which the accused person shall be discovered, would have authorized the detaining and bringing him to trial, had the offence been committed there. The expenses of the arrest and the prosecution,

shall be defrayed by the party making the requisition; but this Article has no effect in reference to crimes of murder, forgery, or fraudulent bankruptcy, committed before the conclusion of this Definitive Treaty.

XXI. The Contracting Parties promise to observe sincerely and faithfully all the articles contained in the present Treaty, and will not suffer any sort of counteraction, direct or indirect, to be made to it by their citizens, or respective subjects; and the Contracting Parties guarantee, generally and reciprocally, all the stipulations of the present Treaty.

XXII. The present Treaty shall be ratified by the Contracting Parties, as soon as possible, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in due form at Paris.

In testimony whereof, we, the undersigned Plenipotentiaries, have signed with our hands, and in virtue of our respective full powers, the present Definitive Treaty, causing it to be sealed with our respective seals.

Done at Amiens, the 4th Germinal, in the year 10 (March 25, 1802).

(Signed) **BONAPARTE,**
CORNWALLIS,
AZARA, and
SCHIMMELPENNEL.

J. Buonaparte. (A correct Copy.)

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A new Edition of Keasley's *Portage* brought down to the present time, will be published early in May.

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Accidents from the Marine List.

THE St. George, Spencer, Powerful, and Warrior men of war, arrived at Jamaica 14th Feb. from Gibraltar.

The brig Lord Nelson, is totally lost at Jamaica.

The Defiance, Smith, sailed from Jamaica 3d February, for London, since put back leaky.

The Arethusia, Dods, from London to Jamaica, is lost on the Isle of Ash, crew and part of the cargo saved.

The Margaret, Grant, from Liverpool to Honduras, put into Jamaica in distress 21st January.

The Edward, Emery, from Newfoundland to Barbadoes, fell to Leeward, and is put into Jamaica.

The Venerable, Angus, from Liverpool for Honduras, passed Jamaica 27th January.

The Fancy, Duncan, from London to Honduras, passed Jamaica early in February.

A dismasted brig, bottom up, has drifted into Sandbogen, near Uddevalla, in Sweden, supposed to be the Star, of Aberdeen, James, master, from Dantzic for Aberdeen.

The Tagus, Strachan, from Arbroath, is aground on the Swine Bottoms, and full of water.

The Farmer, Corneby, from London to Lisbon, is towed into Cowes, dismasted, and with considerable other damage, having been run on board of last Monday night by the Mercury.

The Elizabeth, Edwards, from Cork to North Yarmouth, is put into Cowes with damage.

The Minerva, —, from Charlton to London, was spoke with 27th March, by the Lady Hobart Packet.

The Duke of Kent, Clark, arrived at Milford from the South Seas, on the 19th March, in lat 42. long. 30. fell in with the Frederick George, Peterson, from Virginia to Madeira, dismasted, and nearly full of water, in which state she had been 24 days. The crew taken on board the Duke of Kent.

The Danish ship, Friede, Kruger, from Naples to London, is put back to Baya (near Naples) with damage.

The Harmony, Booth, from Yarmouth to Pillau, is lost near the Kola. Great part of the materials are saved, but the vessel is full of water.

The Rattler, late Wilson, from Demerara to London, having sprung a leak, put into Grenada the end of January, and was unloading her cargo. The ground tier supposed to be damaged.

The Lady Yonge, Forrest, from Surinam to London, is put into St. Thomas's in distress, and will be obliged to unload, having been on shore.

The Robert & Ann, Halket, was totally lost on the island of Stromo, 31st. ult. Two people drowned.

The Hope (of Workington,) Bells, from Kinsale to Dublin, got on shore on Arklow

Banks, where the crew deserted her; since floated off, and found near St. David's Head, 30th ult. dismasted and plundered; and towed into Milford by the Ephron, Lindsay, of Poole.

The Sophia, (a Dane,) Lanert, from Lisbon to Bourdeaux, got on shore at the entrance of the latter port 30th ult.

Captain Hurry, of the Harriott, arrived at Torbay, saw the Harmony, Dowker, for London, and a yellow sided brig, with a head, on shore near Honduras. — Als, a large ship going into Honduras with loss of her mainmast, on the 21st January.

The Richard, Thompson, from Curacao to Lancaster, was captured by a privateer some months since. — The Captain is carried to Carthage. — Five men killed and five wounded on board the Richard.

The Admiral Mann, a transport, and several other Vessels, (particulars unknown) were lost at Alexandria the end of January.

The Alexander, Butaloff, from Petersburg to Lisbon, put into Hull some time since, was driven from her anchorage, on Friday last, upon Whitton sand, and upset, and it is feared that both ship and cargo will be lost.

The Affiance, of 50 guns, was totally lost the 29th March, between Gravelines and Dunkirk. — The officers and crew saved.

The Union, Charters, that was on shore on the middle ground, near Elsinore, is got off.

The Henry Addington, Ocean, Nottingham, Boddam, Hindostan, Admiral Gardner, Hope, Carnatic, Windham, and Lord Duncan, East Indiamen; with fourteen American vessels, and four country ships, arrived at China 23d October.

The Danish East Indiamen, White, Eagle, Heleson, from Copenhagen to Bengal, put into Plymouth 10th instant, with loss of main-top-mast, and in much distress, and it is feared must unload.

The General Ogleshorpe, from Charlton to the Havannah, was lost the 5th of February on the Reef N. E. from Whale Key, six miles from the land, and went to pieces next day. The second mate, nine seamen, and thirteen negroes were drowned. — Fifteen saved, and arrived at N. Providence. Five or six other vessels were lost at the same time, near the same place; one of them a homeward-bound Jamaica ship, and another a Guineaman.

The Sophia Carolina, Soumson, from Bergen to Naples, is stranded near Naples. — The mate drowned.

The Tiviot, Gray, with coals, for the West Indies, is one shore on the Shingles.

The Princess Amelia, Swain, from London for South Georgia, put into Paramaribo in distress, in Dec. last.

The Kitty, from Sunderland, coal loaded, is on shore near Yarmouth, and it is thought will be lost.

The

The Tottin, Denny, from Gibraltar to Mahon, was lost at Ivica, 11th February. Part of the cargo saved.

The Atlas, Brooks; and Hercules, Betts, from London for New South Wales, were at Rio Janeiro on the 2d of February last.

The Jeune Jan, Duval, from London, got on shore on the 22th ult. near St. Valery, and fears are entertained both for vessel and cargo.

The Ranger, Lea, from London to New Providence, is lost off there.

The Jason, Chadeayne, of New York for Hull, with tar, turpentine, flour, and staves, is wrecked at Shetland.

The Stains, Deans, of Hull for London, is on shore on Hasbro' Sand—The cargo is expected to be saved.

The Surprise, Strong, from New Orleans to Falmouth, foundered at sea on the 10th March, in lat. 38. 27. N. Long. 58. W. —The crew saved, and landed at Falmouth, from the Hannah, Hopkins, from Charleston.

The Lord Donoughmore, from St. Croix to London, is lost near St. Croix. Part of the cargo saved.

The Hancock, Watts, from Batavia for Boston, was at the Island of Ascension 22d February, in distress.

The Boyd, Barclay, from Clyde to Boston, is put into Waterford with damage.

The Lady Nelson, McCowan, from Africa, is condemned at Demerara—Cargo sold.

The Catherine Ray, Benthall, from Lisbon, which was stranded on Long Island, got off, and arrived at New York the 20th February.

The Emerald, McKinnan, from London and Fayal to Jamaica, was taken the 16th August off Jamaica, and carried to Carthagena.

The William & Ann, Kelly, from Leith for Davis's Streights, is returned to Stromness leaky. The Raith, Lyons, has also put back with her.

The Mary Hall, from London to Quebec, put into Caleur Bay, 14th November last.

The Catherine Ray, Benthall, from Lisbon, was lost on the south side of Long Island on 21st Feb.

The Harriot, of Boston, from Batavia for New York, was spoke with off the Cape of Good Hope, 4th Jan. Captain dead, ship leaky, and had thrown part of the cargo overboard.

The Traveller, Russel, from Jamaica to New York, is on shore at Brookhaven.

The Betty, Harrison, from Belfast to Dantzig, was wrecked 21st March near Stromness.

The Brunskill, Bacon, from Whitehaven to Virginia, is lost off Cape Hallers—Crew saved.

The Minerva, Shuny, from Alicante to London, is on shore at Carboniers Bay, coast of Spain.

The Constant, Forsman, from Liverpool

to Morlaix, is lost on the coast of Lancashire, part of the cargo saved.

The Brutus, Brown; Ulysses, Cook; and Volusia, Cook, from Salem for Europe, are drove on shore on Cape Cod; the two former are lost, but the latter expected to be got off.

The King George Packet, Dean, lost a mast near Heligoland, and is gone to Hambro' to refit.

The American Packet, Barnard, from Cadix for New York, was spoke with 12th Feb. off Bermuda, in distress, and bearing away for the West Indies.

The Theresa, King, of Philadelphia, is lost on the coast of Guinea, and all the crew.

The Lucy, Fenny, from Nantes, is drove on shore at Salt House Beach, America.

The Elizabeth, Low, of Hull, is lost on Memel bar.

The William & Henry, Sutherland, from Memel for Shields, is on shore upon the Herd Sand, near Shields, but expected to be got off. Crew saved.

The Betsey Caines, Johnson, from London to St. Kitt's, has been on shore on Chichester shoals, and since carried into Ramsgate leaky.

The Tiviot, Gray, from Newcastle to St. Kitt's, that was on shore on the Shingle, is got off, and since put into Torbay.

The Ridley, Baldcock, arrived off Falmouth from Malaga, spoke the following vessels, viz. the Ann, of Glasgow, bound to Jamaica, in Lat. 41. 28. Long. 13. 21. Cambo, of Newcastle, to Quebec, in Lat. 45. 46.—Long. 9. 33.—and Minerva, Thompson, from Teneriffe to London, in Long. 47. 13.—and Lat. 9. 33.

The De Vitte Vosse, Lorentzen, from Hambro' to Buenos Ayres, was spoke with on 8th Feb. in Lat. 26.—5 S. Long. 35.—9 W. out 15 weeks by the Fortune, Capt. Halcrow, from the South Seas.

The Eagle, Butterwick, from Gibraltar to Malta, foundered at Sea.

The Dart, Hensley, from Demerara to Liverpool, put into St. Kitt's 4th ult.

The Tzee Gysberts, Maas, from Altona to Batavia, (in ballast) is carried into Ramsgate, after being on shore near Dover, lost her windlass, anchor, and cable.

A large ship got on shore last evening, at the back of Goodwin Sands, supposed to be a homeward-bound Swede.

The Mary, McDonald, from London, is arrived at Oporto, after having been plundered by a privateer, or armed vessel.

The Princess, Lee, from Smyrna to London, is on shore at Beachy Head, her rudder off, and it is feared will be lost.

The Houghton, Ruston, from Liverpool for Riga, was totally lost 10th inst. on Auholt Reef. Crew arrived at Elsinore.

The Edward, Martin, from Aix, for Memel, has been on shore in the Orkney, where she has received considerable damage, and intends to proceed to Shields to repair.

The Elizabeth, Muir, is condemned at St. Vincent's.

Alphabetical List of Bankruptcies and Dividends, announced between the 3d and 24th of April.

BANKRUPTCIES.

- ALGER**, John, Walcot, Somersetshire, soap-maker. (Randolph, Bath.)
- Anderfon**, Christopher, Newcastle upon Tyne, cheesemonger. Young, Newcastle upon Tyne.)
- Anderfon**, Joseph, Clare-street, butcher. (Wilfon, Moorfields.)
- Baggs**, Charles, Liverpool, merchant. (Windle, Bartlett's-buildings, Holborn.)
- Beauchamp**, Robert, and Edward Lloyd, Kirby-street, Hatton-garden, warehouseman. (Dere, Berkeley-street, Clerkenwell.)
- Binkhorn**, William, and John Mulgrave, Fetter-lane, Cheap-side, silk weaver. (Berry, Charlotte-row, Mansion-house.)
- Bodecker**, Augustus William, Old Jewry, merchant. (Crowder and Lavie, Frederick's-place, Old Jewry.)
- Bodenham**, William, Shrewsbury, mercer. (Loxdale, Shrewsbury.)
- Bowie**, William, and William Hannah, Blackfriars-road, oilmen. (Holloway, Chancery-lane.)
- Brittain**, George, Bristol, grocer. (Morgan and Stevens, Bristol.)
- Carruthers**, John, Liverpool, joiner. (Blackstock, Figtree-court, Temple.)
- Cowlishaw**, Charles, Ashbourne, grocer. (Michel, Union-court, Broad-street, London.)
- Coxon**, Joseph, late of Queen-street, Cheap-side, merchant. (Smith and son, Basinghall-street.)
- Chatterton**, Edward, Rye, Sussex, timber merchant. (Ewit and Rixon, Haydon-square.)
- Curtis**, Thomas, Frith-street, Soho, painter and glazier. (Roffer, King-street, Holborn.)
- Da Coffer**, Jacob Mendez, Thavies-inn, Holborn, merchant. (Adams, Old Jewry.)
- Davies**, Richard, Park-lane, saddler. (Swaine and Stevens, Old Jewry.)
- Drake**, Robert, and Ebenezer Goddard, Newgate-street, wine and brandy merchants. (Mills, Ely-place, Holborn.)
- Entwistle**, William, Entwistle, Lancashire, cotton manufacturer. (Haworth, Turton, near Bolton, Lancashire.)
- Gardner**, Frederick, Great St. Helen's, underwriter. (Robinson, Prescot-street, Goodman's-fields.)
- Orange**, Joseph, Uxbridge, broker. (Hodder and Paislie, Uxbridge.)
- Hall**, John Henkridge, Cheap-side, merchant. (Collins and Reynolds, Spital-square.)
- Hill**, David Lindley, Hendersfield, York, cloth dresser. (Stephenson, Holmfirth, Huddersfield.)
- Hodgson**, Christopher, and Allanton Hodgson, Sunderland, linen drapers. (Laws, Sunderland.)
- Flooper**, Richard, Burbage, Wilts, corn chandler. (Southby, Marlborough.)
- Hornby**, Nathaniel, Newcastle upon Tyne, woollen draper. (Heron, Newcastle.)
- Hunford**, John, Alford, Lincolnshire, milk-keeper. (Roffer, Kirby-street, Hatton-garden.)
- Jewitt**, William, Snaith Lodge, Yorkshire, brandy merchant. (Wright and Reynolds, Temple.)
- Lovell**, William Henry, Fetter-lane, leather seller. (Ware, Gray's-inn.)
- Marriott**, John, Uxbridge, shopkeeper. (Shaw, Clement's-inn.)
- M'Henry**, otherwise MacHenry, Ber, of Stratford upon Avon, mercer. (Lavers, Everham.)
- Moody**, Matthew, West Stockwith, Nottinghamshire, ship builder. (Young, Carlisle street, Soho.)
- Moseley**, John, and James Rose, Birmingham, factors. (Lee and Currie, Birmingham.)
- Norton**, John, Drury-lane, victualler. (Earnshaw, Redcross-street, Cripplegate.)
- Nesbitt**, John, Edward Stewart, and John Nesbitt, jun. Aldermanbury, merchants. (Norris and Robinson, Lincoln's-inn.)
- Partridge**, Thomas, Dover, sail-maker. (Lee, Sandwich, Kent.)
- Quinton**, Michael, Bristol, taylor. (Hartley, Bristol.)
- Seward**, Philip, and Thomas Pippin, Southampton, merchants. (North and Cuny, Southampton.)
- Sing**, Thomas Horden, Stockport, Cheshire, grocer. (Milne, Inner Temple.)
- Wade**, Thomas, Great St. Helen's, drug merchants. (Ward and Co. Henrietta-street, Covent-garden.)
- Webb**, Samuel, Melkham, carpenter. (Moule, Melkham.)
- Wood**, Richard, Liverpool, merchant. (Griffiths, Lincoln's-inn.)

DIVIDENDS.

- Allcorn**, Richard, Hampton, Middlesex, blacksmith, May 11.
- Allwood**, Thomas, late of Great Russell-street, carver, May 4.
- Anderfon**, George, Bury St. Edmund's, inn-keeper, May 1.
- Armstrong**, Sarah, Bath, ironmonger and braxier, May 11.
- Ashworth**, John, South Molton-street, Hanover-square, warehousemen, May 23.
- Bainbow**, Matthew, Thorntonmill, Yorkshire, cornmill, May 17.
- Bamber**, William, Chorley, Lancashire, muslin manufacturer, May 1.
- Atye**, John, Wilton, York, auctioneer, May 11.
- Beal**, George, Great Surrey-street, New-friars-road, cheesemonger, May 23.
- Beasley**, Charles, and Joseph Dale, Newcastle, warehousemen, May 8.
- Blakey**, George, Mile-end, fishmonger, May 11.
- Eland**, Wm. Birmingham, grocer, May 8.

- Boulton, D'Arey, Philip Morgan, Thomas Morgan, John Caspar Vancouver, and Benjamin Stow, Guper's-bridge, Lambeth, merchants, May 15.
- Bridbury, Samuel, late of Basinghall-street, broker, May 8.
- Brady, James, Ipswich, linen draper, May 10.
- Buddicom, Robert Joseph, Liverpool, merchant, May 18.
- Burford, John, Holborn-bridge, linen draper, May 4.
- Caley, George, Old Change, factor, May 11.
- Cawthorn, George, Strand, bookseller, May 22.
- Chapman, William, Devonshire-street, ship insurance broker, May 8.
- Clarison, Samuel, Strand, carver and gilder, June 5.
- Collett, James, Strand, oilman, May 15.
- Collier, John Stockport, and Samuel Collier, Manchester, cotton spinners, May 15.
- Crammond, Arthur, New Bridge-street, Blackfriars, merchant, May 15.
- Croftale, William, late of Liverpool, corn merchant, May 4.
- Cullen, Michael, Liverpool, merchant, May 19.
- Cunningham, George, Wellclose-square, carpenter, May 15.
- Dormer, Matthew, Curtain-road, soap maker, May 8.
- Dunmore, Edward, Stonton Wyvell, Leicestershire, miller, April 30.
- Ellis, Peter, Liverpool, merchant, May 10.
- Emmens, John, Abingdon, carrier, May 19.
- Fox, George, Henrietta-street, Covent-garden, tay or, May 4.
- Fozard, James the elder, Letitia Fozard, and James Fozard the younger, Park-lane, Piccadilly, stablekeepers, June 5.
- Frost, John, Hedon, Yorkshire, tanner, May 5.
- Fullwood, Jonathan, Barbican, pawnbroker, May 8.
- Gardner, Thomas Christopher, late of Brentford, Middlesex, ironmouger, May 12.
- Gregory, James, Wolverhampton, soap-maker, May 4.
- Gregory, Adam, Tavistock-street, Covent-garden, taylor, May 11.
- Haigh, Samuel, Manchester, merchant, May 3.
- Hamilton, John, Paternoster-row, book-seller, May 8.
- Harris, Richard, West-street, Seven-dials, hair-merchant, May 1.
- Hartley, Stephen, late of Grassington, Yorkshire, May 11.
- Hartineck, John Caspar, Julius Hutchinson, and William Playfair, Cornhill, bankers, April 30.
- Hawkins, Robert, Kingston-upon-Hull, cabinet-maker, May 13.
- Heathcote, John, Liverpool, corn-dealer, May 10.
- Heaton, George, jun. late of Leeds, oil-merchant, May 22.
- Jacob, Harry and Joseph Jacob, late of Milford, Pembroke-shire, ship-builders, May 15.
- King, James, South Kilworth, Leicester, dealer and chapman, May 14.
- Lacey, Samuel, Tooley-street, oil-map, May 4.
- Larard, Francis, Manchester, liquor-merchant, May 12.
- Levy Mordecai, Stamford-street, Blackfriars-road, merchant, May 23.
- Lovelace, Arthur Anthony, Hanway-street, Oxford-road, May 15.
- Luning, Jacob William, Lawrence Pountney-lane, merchant, May 1.
- Lunn, Jas. Bedale, Yorkshire, shop-keeper.
- McCullom, John, late of Bristol, merchant, April 29.
- McLean, Charles, late of Cloth-fair, woollen draper, May 4.
- Malcolm, Samuel, Old Broad-street, broker, May 29.
- Marston, Tho. Birmingham, grocer, May 3.
- Moore, Jane Elizabeth, late of Bermondsey-street, May 1.
- Morley, William, Hare-street, Bethnal-green, brewer, June 19.
- Muir, Hugh, Liverpool, grocer, May 20.
- Nutt, James, late of Leicester, grocer, May 14.
- Offner, John Paul, Kingland-road, Middlesex, brewer, May 4.
- Onion, Francis, the younger, Croydon, miller, May 11.
- Owen, Robert and Will. Marble, Hound-ditch, copper-smiths, May 8.
- Philips, John, late of the Swan-inn, Ross, Herefordshire, April 29.
- Philips, Evan, Foster-lane, oil-man, May 22.
- Purcell, Elizabeth and Thomas Wingfield Purcell, New-street, Fetter-lane, glass-dealer, May 25.
- Rackstraw, Joseph, Henley-upon-Thames, grocer, April 24.
- Rimington, Isaac, Leeds, maltster and common brewer, May 13.
- Robertson, Alexander, Castle-court, Birchin-lane, merchant, May 11.
- Rose, Cha. St. Ann's, Westminster, cheese-monger, May 4.
- Saul, Thomas and John Reynolds, Manchester, woollaplers, May 4.
- Scarbrow, William, St. Neot's, Huntingdon-shire, May 25.
- Schulze, William and Philip Unger, Little Britain, merchants, May 4.
- Scott, James and Francis Roach, Castle-st. Leicester-fields, linen-draper, May 4.
- Scudamore, Richard, Red-lion-street, Holborn, May 15.
- Smith, Thomas, Watworth, Surrey, grocer, May 15.
- Spencer, W. Saffron-hall, victualler, May 4.
- Spittle, Peter, Wednesbury, Staffordshire, gunlock-maker, May 8.
- Stafford, Robert, the younger, Huntingdon, grocer, May 25.
- Stean, William, Annesley, Warwickshire, maltster, May 31.
- Tankard, John and Richard Tankard, Birmingham, factors, April 23.
- Thompson, Robert, Wood-street, Chancery-lane, silk-manufacturer, May 4.

Thorn, William, Dirty-lane, woollen-dra-
per, May 8.
Vaughan, Henry, Liverpool, grocer, May 13.
Wemberley, Thomas Peele, late of Hun-
tingdon, grocer, May 25.
Wetherell, Thomas, Sunderland, near the
Sea, Durham, brazier, May 20.

Whitaker, James, Doncaster, wine-mer-
chant, May 7.
Wilson, Philip, Wardour-street, Soho, vi-
tualier, May 15.
Wilton, William, late of Nine Elms, Surrey
Spanish leather dresser, May 4.

PROVINCIAL OCCURRENCES.

BEDFORDSHIRE.

Married.] At Bedford, the Rev. Isaac Anthony, to Miss Mary Palmer, daughter of Mr. Benj. P. of that town.—In London, Thomas Skinner, esq. of Wilken, near Bed-
ford, to Miss Molecrop of Great Portland
street.—Mr. W. Farty, land-surveyor of
Turvey, to Miss Elizabeth Atkin, only
daughter of the late Mr. Thomas Atkin of
Aisby, in the county of Lincoln.

BERKSHIRE.

Edward Painter, executed at Reading for
stealing two heifers, has left ten poor unfor-
tunate children, for whom he earnestly en-
treated with his last breath at the gallows
the blessings and protection of the spectators.

Birth.] The lady of Henry Lannoy Hunter,
esq. of Beach-hill of a son, at Bath.

Married.] The Rev. Charles Richard Beaumont, of Brazen Nose college, Oxford,
to Miss Martha Hempfoll, of East Ilfley in
this county.—Mr. William Beechey, livery
stable keeper to Miss Clarke, daughter of Mr.
Clarke of the Maidenhead Inn, Reading.

Died.] Aged 79 Mr. Buss, farmer of Upton.
Mr. Otto of Reading.—Mrs. Blandy, wife
of John Blandy, esq. of Reading, and daugh-
ter of the late John Jackson, esq. of Eltham.
She was a pattern of every social and christian
virtue. In her relations of daughter, sister,
wife, mother, and friend, the charmed and
edified all who knew her. Grief on the sad
occasion of her loss is not confined to her
family; never was sorrow more severely felt,
nor more generally expressed.—In her 80th
year Mrs. Masters of Thatcham.—At Chaw-
ton near Alton, aged 82 years, the Rev.
John Hinton, who during 58 years had been
rector of that parish. His constant residence,
active benevolence, and truly christian dis-
position, endeared him not only to his pa-
rishioners and relatives, but to every one
who had the happiness to know him.

BUCKS.

Married.] Mr. Ivatts, taylor of Chesham,
to Miss Gough of Aylesbury.

Died.] At the Camp-house in the parish
of Dorton, Mrs. Stone, wife of Mr. W. Stone,
a respectable farmer and grazier; she was an
example of piety, resignation, and charity,
worthy imitation, beloved by her family, and
respected by all who had the pleasure of
knowing her.

CAMBRIDGE.

William Wright and John Bullock were
executed at Cambridge pursuant to their
sentence, for uttering as true forged Bank of
England notes. They were both very peni-

tent, and met their fate with resignation.
Bullock was the son of a person of consider-
able property in Bedfordshire, and by the
death of a relation since he was apprehended
had come into the possession of an estate of
nearly 400l. per annum.

Married.] At the seat of Maurice Keatinge,
esq. M. P. the Hon. Coulson Wallop, M. P.
for Andover, to Miss Keatinge.

At Middlewich, David Edwards of Ed-
monton, Middlesex, esq. to Miss Sarah
Wood, of Newton, in this county.

Died.] At Windrum, the Hon. Booth
Grey, brother of Lord Stamford. He served
in three successive parliaments for Leicesters,
and on every important occasion evinced an
independence of spirit that did honor to his
birth. Attached to no set of men, but from
conviction, he was neither the slave of the
minister, nor the tool of opposition. He
retired from parliament in the year 1784,
with the character of an honest, independ-
ent, and upright senator.—Mrs. Grefley,
wife of Mr. Grefley of the Queen's head,
Chester.—Mr. Edward Bittrell of Egerton,
green.—Of an apoplectic fit in the 66th year
of his age, the Rev. W. Steel, senior, mi-
nister of Lower Peover; he was master of
the school in the same place 40 years.—In
the 78th year of her age Mrs. Renner, re-
lict of the late Mr. R. of the Old House in
Warringham.—At Chester, Richard Myt-
ton, esq.—Aged 13, John Harrison, only
son of Thomas Harrison, esq. architect.—
Mr. Thomas Waller, of Middlewich.—Mr.
Thomas Lightfoot of Weaverham.—Mrs.
Ankers of Clotton.—Very suddenly Ralph
Johnson, esq. of Tiltone.

CORNWALL.

The present very low price of copper, it
is feared, will be the means of stopping some
of the principal mines, as the returns are
found unequal to the expence of working
them.

Last week at Redruth a woman was un-
fortunately gored, which occasioned her
death.

Andrew Mill fell into a pit at Cowan
upwards of 200 yards deep, and was literally
dashed to pieces; his legs and thighs stopped
on a projection about half way down, his
bowels descended to another step about 40
yards lower, and his head and body in many
pieces went to the bottom; these fragments
were collected and buried the day following.

Died.] Joseph Ellis, of the parish of St. Ma-
ry, was found dead in an open field, near
Longm, to Edward Hodge, innkeeper.

Monday, where he is supposed to have been about five weeks; one of his legs was partly eaten by the rats, and he was a shocking spectacle.

Robert Robinson, a farrier of the same place, was found dead in a stable with his head downwards in a horse's crib. He was putting down the hay to the horses, and it is imagined missed his feet, fell forwards, and was suffocated in the hay.

John Curtis, of the parish of Wendron, on his return from Redruth, much in liquor, fell from his horse and broke his neck.

Mrs. Elizabeth Pebody, of Bodmin.—Mrs. Honor Edyvean of the same place.

CUMBERLAND.

Births.] At Dovenby-hall, the lady of J. D. B. Dykes, esq. of a daughter.—At Warwick-hall, near Carlisle, the lady of Robert Bonnor Warwick, esq. of a son and heir.

Married.] At Carlisle, Mr. Thomas Elbery, to Mrs. Armstrong.

Died.] At Carlisle, in the 75th year of his age, Daniel Moor, esq. of Anne's hill, near Cocker-mouth, greatly and deservedly respected by all who knew him. At Carlisle, aged 18, Miss Elizabeth Milburn.—Mr. John Simpson, jeweller, aged 52.—At Cocker-mouth, aged 54, Mrs. Simpson, wife of Mr. S. of that place.—At Whitehaven, Mrs. Robinson, wife of Mr. R. tin plate worker.—At Carlisle, in the 23d year of her age, Miss Jane Thomlinson.—At Wasdew, near Gillland, Ralph Pickering, esq. At Armathwaite, Mr. Isaac Slack, aged 80. At Whitehaven, aged 84, Mr. Joseph Briggs, formerly master of a vessel belonging to that port.—At the same place Miss Ann Mackay, in the prime of life.—At Whitehaven, William Walter, esq. aged 64. His spirit and active talents for business assiduously and successfully employed in very extensive concerns, rendered him a truly valuable member of society, and will make his death sincerely regretted by a respectable and numerous acquaintance.—At his seat at Mirehouse, near Kewick, Thomas Storey, esq. in the 64th year of his age. He served the office of High Sheriff of this county in 1781, and was very highly esteemed through life by a numerous acquaintance.

DERBYSHIRE.

Mr. Milers of Hassop has 4 ewes, which have this season yealed 14 lambs.—An ewe, the property of the Rev. Mr. Nevison, of Penpoint, on 26th last June yealed 4 lambs, and on the 29th ult. 3 more.

Married.] At Althover, near Chesterfield, Mr. Richard Kirk, aged 20, to Mrs. M. Hogg, a blooming widow of 72.

Died.] At Buxton, James Edge, esq. of Manchester, merchant and captain in the Manchester and Salford volunteers.—Aged 79, Mrs. Smith, widow of the late Mr. Smith of Derby, farrier.

DEVONSHIRE.

The trial of Robert Harris, at Exeter, for a misdemeanor in sending a letter to Sir Francis Buller, bart. charging him with an

infamous crime, for the purpose of extorting money, excited very considerable interest and attention. The prisoner it appeared had lived with Sir F. in the capacity of groom, and had been discharged from his service for improper behaviour. The principal facts were fully proved in the clearest manner. The prisoner's counsel declined making any observation, and called no witnesses. The jury without waiting for any address from the judge, immediately returned the prisoner guilty, to the entire satisfaction of a very crowded court—he was sentenced to be transported for seven years: Mr. Gibbs was counsel for the prosecution.

At the assizes for Devon, fourteen prisoners received sentence of death, eight of whom were left for execution; the rest have been reprieved for transportation; one to be transported for fourteen, and one for seven years; eight to be imprisoned, and one whipped.

Married.] Mr. Thomas Fulman, clothier of Doniford-house near Dunster, Somerset, to Miss Wills, eldest daughter of Mr. Charles Wills, merchant, Barnstaple.

Died.] At Dawlish, Robert Branscombe, late quarter-master of his Majesty's ship Orion. He was present at the battle of the Nile. In January last in Spanish Town, Jamaica, at D. Drew's esq. of a yellow fever. After a short illness, W. Dunsterville, esq. late of Plymouth; he was a worthy honest man, much beloved by a large circle of friends and acquaintances, who sincerely lament his loss. At Saltash, in an apoplectic fit, in the 40th year of his age, deservedly lamented, Mr. Henry Symons, of Plymouth dock.—Mrs. Davie, wife of Mr. Edward D. postmaster of Barnstaple.—At sea, off the Island of Jamaica, Mr. J. Thompson of Plymouth, and purser of his Majesty's ship Plover on that station; much lamented by his brother officers, family, and friends.

DORSETSHIRE.

Married.] Christopher Cooper, M. D. to Miss Yeatman of Dorchester, At Axminster, the Rev. John Comyns, of Wood, and rector of Bishop Steignton, to Miss Hallett, daughter of the Rev. Mr. H. of Steadcombe.

Died.] At Beaminster, much respected, after a lingering illness borne with the greatest fortitude and resignation, Miss Sophia Sawkins, youngest daughter of the late Rev. James Sawkins, of Frampton. At the same place, in her 87th year, Mrs. Daniel, relict of the late Mr. James D. many years one of his Majesty's coroners of this county. At Langport, aged 60, Mr. Elime Sampfield, formerly of considerable practice in the profession of the law, to which few men paid more attention, or acted with higher respect or greater integrity. Mr. Combs, surgeon and apothecary, of Sturminster Newton.

DURHAM.

At Durham, Miss Agnew, relict of the late Captain A. R. N. brother of the late General A.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

Married.] At Gloucester, Capt. Walter Fremenhore R. N. to Miss Frances Apperley, second daughter of Thomas A. esq. of Woolton-house. At Crudwell, Mr. Howman, of Winchcomb, to Miss Chevalier of Estcourt, Wilts.

Died.] At Hawkesbury, in his 97th year, Rev. Peter Cole, M. A. he was vicar of Hawkesbury 7 years.

HEREFORDSHIRE.

Births.] The lady of Robert Phillips, esq. of Hereford, of a daughter.

Married.] Rev. John Reeve, to Miss S. Ford, sister to the Rev. Dr. Ford, canon residentiary of Hereford. At Kingston, Mr. J. Price of Bulth, to Miss F. Jones of Kingston.

Died.] At Hereford, Mr. W. B. Thomas, attorney, aged 32. At Clodock, in her 102d year, Ann Gething. A few weeks since in the same parish, Arnold George, aged 105. At Towfend Ddwy, aged 79, Francis Bowyer, esq. highly esteemed by his numerous friends for his rectitude of mind and goodness of heart. At the Grove farm in the parish of Much Dovechurch, after a lingering illness, Mr. Peter Morgan of Harewood in this county.

HERTFORDSHIRE.

Died.] Mrs. Elizabeth Dickinson, relict of the late Rev. Plaxton D. of Bishop's Stortford.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE.

At Alconbury, the Rev. Isaac Nicholson, in the 70th year of his age. He was suddenly taken ill as he began divine service on Sunday afternoon, and expired a few hours afterwards.

Marriages.] At Milton, Mr. G. Gaviller, of Hackney, to Miss Ann Styles, of Gravesend. Captain Clark Collwell, of the 35th regiment, to Miss Sarah Maddox, second daughter of the late Tristram Maries Maddox, Esq. of Greenwich. At Wareham, Mr. John Hatcher, to Miss Ann Sawyer, both of that place. At Upper Deal, Mr. Samuel Cafen, to Mrs. Stanley, of that place. Lieut. Samuel C. Faulkner, R. N. to Miss Caroline Annall, of Deal. At Sellenge, Mr. John Palmer, of Canterbury, to Miss Mary Heritate, of Sellenge. At New Romney, Mr. William Elliot, of Ashford, to Miss Farley, of Romney. Mr. John Ramfden, to Mrs. Clapton, both of New Romney.

Deaths.] At the Mote, the seat of Thomas Selby, esq. the lady of captain C. Selby, of Greenwich, of a lingering illness, Miss Eliz. Charlotte Hughes, youngest daughter of the late William Hughes, esq. of Selinanger. At Ashford, in the 14th year of his age, Master Haffenden, third son of Mr. Haffenden, of that place. Miss Norris, daughter of Mr. Norris, of Horne Bars. At Rochester, in the 69th year of his age, Mr. Robert le Grand. At Greenwich, a few hours after his arrival from the Cape of Good Hope, Archibald Hamilton Robertson, captain of the royal artillery. At Chatham, Mr. Smith,

late store-keeper of the office of ordnance at Blackwall, in the parish of Hinxhill, Mr. Daniel Chittenden, aged 80. At Tunbridge-wells, of a rapid decay, William Badcock, esq. in his 29th year. Mrs. Shrubsole, widow of the late Rev. Mr. Shrubsole, of Bethel-chapel, Sheerness.

LANCASHIRE.

Married.] At Blackburn, Mr. John Croxley, of Bolton-hall, Hoghton, to Miss March, of Pleaflington, his fifth wife. At Liverpool, Mr. John Audley Jee, to Miss Herbert. Mr. James Brough, to Miss Mary Richards, both of Manchester. At Liverpool, Mr. Edwards, of London, to Miss Penny, of the former place. At Liverpool, Mr. Williams, to Miss Worthington.

Died.] Killed by a fall from his horse, Mr. Wood, surgeon, of Burnley. Joshua Rose, esq. of Everton, near Liverpool, aged 72. Mr. Lawrence Gardner, merchant, of Manchester, aged 79. Mr. John Latham, formerly an eminent wine-merchant, of Liverpool. In his 61st year, Mr. John Porter, clerk to the collectors of excise, Manchester, a station which he filled with unexampled ability during a period of 42 years. At Liverpool, in his 22d year, Mr. Cha. Whately, youngest son of the late John Whately, esq. of Handsworth, near Birmingham. At Chethero, in the 35th year of his age, Mr. Cha. Addy, cotton-spinner and manufacturer. At Rochdale, Henry Ormerod, M. D. Mr. Odden, of Salford, brewer. At Manchester, Mrs. Pixton, wife of Mr. Wm. Pixton, pork-butcher, aged 30. Mr. Jas. Kenwick, stonemason, of Manchester. Mr. John Mather, of Cocklehead-green, farmer. Mr. Lowe, attorney, of Manchester. Mr. Sam. Wadkin, small ware manufacturer, of Manchester, aged 40, one of the people called Quakers, and a truly honest man.

LEICESTERSHIRE.

Died.] Mr. George Webb, of Leicester. Miss Walker, of Beaumont Leys. Mr. Harding, of Tamworth, banker. Mr. Bruin, of Glen Parva, aged 63. Much respected, Mr. Joseph Peake, of Blaby, aged 71. By a fall from a horse, Henry, the youngest son of the Rev. H. Woodcock, of Barkby.

LINCOLNSHIRE.

Died.] Suddenly, aged upwards of 80, Mr. George Stubbs, at the George inn, Market Deeping. At Stamford, aged 72, Mr. Dean, formerly master of the George and Angel in that place, and for the last 16 years parish clerk of St. Mary's. At Spittlegate, at the advanced age of 92, John Wheelwright, gent. many years the senior alderman of Grantham. Advanced in years, Mr. Joseph Tubney, late an eminent surgeon of Billingborough. Returning home on horseback from spending the day with a friend, he was seized with an apoplectic fit, and found dead the next morning in the fields. Mr. Joseph Hindson, of Lincoln, schoolmaster, in the prime of life. William Trollope, esq. uncle to Sir John T. bart. of Casswick, near Stamford.

FOREIGN EXCHANGES IN APRIL.

	April 2.	Apr. 6.	Apr. 9.	Apr. 13.	Apr. 15.	Apr. 20.	Apr. 23.
London on							
Amsterd. 2 Us. CF	10. 16			10. 18			
Do. at sight	10. 11		10. 10				
Rotterdam, 2 Us.	10. 17		10. 17	10. 19			
Hambro', 2½ Usa.	32. 7	32. 10	33. 4	33. 2	33. 1	33	
Altona, 2½ Usa.	32. 8	32. 11	33. 5	33. 3	33. 2	33. 1	
Paris, 1 days d.							
Do. 2 Usa.	23. 15 a 18	24	24. 3			23. 14	
Bordeaux, do.						23. 15	
Cadiz Paper	33½		33½	32½	32½	33½	
Do. effective	37½		37½	38		37½	
Madrid Paper	33½		33½	32½	32½	33½	
Do. effective	38½	38	37½	38	38½		
Bilboa							
Leghorn	52	51½	51	50½	50½	50½	51
Naples	45		45	44½			44
Genoa	48½	48	48	47½	47½		47
Venice, Livr. Picc.							
Eff. per £.	57						57½
Lisbon	71			71½		71½	
Oporto	70			70½		71	
Dublin	12½	13	13	12½	13		12½

The horizontal lines in the Columns, denote the Exchanges to be the same as on the preceding Post-day.

Prices of Grain, Flour and Bread.

	Apr. 3.	Apr. 12.	Apr. 19.	Apr. 26.
Wheat per Quarter	46 a 52	50 a 56	40 a 55	36 a 48
Fine ditto	54 60 58	66 52	62 50	58
Superfine	62 67 68	74 64	72 60	66
New Rye	30 35		28 31	
Barley	26 31 26	32	26 30	
Fine ditto	32 36 39	36	31 33	
Malt	40 44		40 43	
Fine ditto	46 50		44 48	
Hog Pease	30 33 30	32	26 28	
Boilers	34 36 33	36 33	34 28	30
Suffolks	36 38 35	37 34	36 30	32
Beans	32 35	31	34 30	33
Ticks	28 32 26	30 20	22 26	28
Oats	15 18 18	20 16	19 14	18
Fine ditto	18 21 21	23 20	22 18	20
Polands	21 24 24	26 23	25 21	23
Pollard	21 24 20	24 21	24 21	23
Amor. fine flour	00 00 00	00 00	00 00	00
Flour, fine, per sack	50 55		50 50	
Bran	13	15	14 00	
Bread, the quaz. loaf	10½d	10d.	10d	

Lord Mayor's Weekly Return of Flour.

	Week, ending Apr. 3.	Week, ending Apr. 10.	Week, ending Apr. 16.	Week, ending Apr. 23.
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Total No. of sacks } 3,612 10,262 21,231 9,250
 Aver. price 59s 6½d 54s 7½ 54s 8½ 54s 7½d

Weekly Price of Sugar.

	Apr. 5.	Apr. 19.	Apr. 26.
Aver. price of Sugar	38 10½	39 2	39 3½
Exclusive of the Duty of Customs paid, or payable on the Importation into Great Britain.			

Weekly Prices of Hay and Straw.

	Apr. 5.	Apr. 19.	Apr. 26.
Smithfield 1.s.	1.s.	1.s.	1.s.
Old Hay 3 10 to 5 5			
Clover 6 0	6 10	4 11	6 6
Straw 1 16	2 5	1 16	2 2
St. James's.			
Hay 2 17	5 10	2 18	5 9
Straw 1 12	2 8	1 17	2 6
Whitechapel.			
Hay 4 0	5 5		5 10
Clover 5 10	6 12	5 10	6 10
Straw 1 18	2 8	1 16	2 6

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[illegible]

POPULATION

Counties of England and Wales.	Inhabited Houses.	By how many families occupied.	Uninhabited Houses.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
Bedford	11888	18980	185	80528	88870	69400
Berk	20179	23418	622	83821	86394	109815
Buckingham	20445	23384	549	89094	85350	107444
Cambridge	16135	19262	512	44081	45265	89346
Chester	34482	37518	1159	92759	89992	191751
Cornwall	38906	40040	1472	89806	96101	185907
Cumberland	21573	23893	872	84377	88833	117210
Derby	31322	36660	1369	79401	81741	161142
Devon	37955	72589	8235	167240	185761	343001
Dorset	21487	24142	825	53667	61682	115349
Durham	37195	38109	1171	74770	85591	160361
Essex	35871	46784	1027	111286	115081	226367
Gloucester	46457	55138	1715	117180	128889	246069
Hereford	17003	18822	941	43955	45236	89191
Hertford	17681	20792	491	49069	49514	97583
Huntingdon	6841	8150	135	18321	19647	37968
Kent	51585	65697	1413	151374	156250	307624
Lancaster	114270	182147	3394	822956	880375	1703331
Leicester	28992	27267	742	63948	66198	130146
Lincoln	41395	42629	1094	102445	106112	208557
Middlesex	112912	199854	5171	373655	444474	818129
Monmouth	8948	9903	417	22173	23409	45582
Norfolk	47617	37930	1523	129842	143529	273371
Northampton	26605	28381	736	63417	68340	131757
Northumberland	26518	35503	1534	73357	82744	157101
Nottingham	23611	30081	542	68558	71792	140350
Oxford	26599	29750	594	83786	85834	169620
Rutland	5274	5963	87	7976	8378	16354
Salop	31182	34501	929	82568	85976	168544
Somerset	48040	57013	2436	126927	146823	273750
Southampton	38345	45331	912	105667	119899	225566
Stafford	45198	48185	1995	118698	120453	239151
Suffolk	32253	43481	552	101091	109340	210431
Surrey	46072	68673	1514	127138	141905	269043
Sussex	25272	30755	721	78797	80514	159311
Warwick	40047	44028	2936	99942	108243	208185
Westmoreland	7897	9026	315	20175	21442	41617
Wilt	29462	30527	1127	87380	97727	185107
Worcester	26711	29741	1109	67631	71702	139333
York, East Riding	25761	31544	681	67457	71976	139433
York, N. Riding	31512	34542	1014	74904	80602	155506
York, W. Riding	11146	117379	4723	270005	287948	557953
	1457870	1778420	55965	3987935	4343499	8331434
Anglesea	6679	7058	127	15775	18031	33806
Brecon	6815	6890	479	13390	16240	31630
Cardigan	8322	9455	221	20406	22548	42954
Carmarthen	13222	14876	371	31439	35878	67317
Carnarvon	8304	8796	129	19586	21935	41521
Denbigh	12621	13765	427	29247	31105	60352
Flint	7585	8216	194	19577	20043	39620
Glamorgan	14225	16596	537	34190	37335	71525
Merioneth	4787	6576	100	13896	15010	28906
Montgomery	8725	9750	228	22914	25064	47978
Pembroke	11829	12448	306	25406	30874	56280
Radnor	5675	5987	213	9947	9708	19655
	106053	118303	3511	257178	284368	541546
Army	—	—	—	23351	—	19851
Navy	—	—	—	23279	—	18279
Seamen in Registered Vessels	—	—	—	14558	—	14558
Convicts	—	—	—	1410	—	1410
	1557973	1896723	57476	4715713	4927867	9643580

Prices of Wheat, from 1650 to 1789.

This Table, to the Year 1764, gives the highest Price of a Quarter of 9 Bushels of highest priced Wheat at Windsor Market—From 1771, the average Prices of the Kingdom.

Year. Average. Price.			Year. Average. Price.			Year. Average. Price.			
1651	3	13 4	1691	1	14 0	1731	1	12 10	
1652	2	9 6	1692	2	6 8	1732	1	6 8	
1653	1	13 6	1693	3	7 8	1733	1	8 4	
1654	1	6 0	1694	3	4 0	1734	1	18 10	
1655	1	13 4	1695	2	12 0	1735	2	3 8	
1656	2	3 0	1696	3	11 0	1736	2	0 4	
1657	2	6 8	1697	4	0 0	1737	1	16 0	
1658	3	5 0	1698	3	8 4	1738	1	15 6	
1659	3	6 0	1699	3	4 0	1739	1	18 6	
1660	2	16 6	1700	2	0 0	1740	2	10 8	
2 9 4			2 16 10			1 17 2			
1661	3	10 0	1701	1	17 8	1741	2	6 8	
1662	3	14 0	1702	1	9 6	1742	1	14 0	
1663	2	17 0	1703	1	16 0	1743	1	4 10	
1664	2	0 6	1704	2	6 6	1744	1	4 10	
1665	2	9 4	1705	1	10 0	1745	1	7 6	
1666	1	16 0	1706	1	6 0	1746	1	19 0	
1667	1	16 0	1707	1	8 6	1747	1	14 10	
1668	2	0 0	1708	2	1 6	1748	1	17 8	
1669	2	4 4	1709	3	18 6	1749	1	17 0	
1670	2	1 8	1710	3	18 0	1750	1	12 6	
2 8 10			2 3 2			1 13 9			
1671	2	2 0	1711	2	14 0	1751	1	18 6	
1672	2	1 0	1712	2	6 4	1752	2	1 10	
1673	2	6 8	1713	2	11 0	1753	2	4 8	
1674	3	8 8	1714	2	10 4	1754	1	14 8	
1675	3	4 8	1715	2	3 0	1755	1	13 10	
1676	1	18 0	1716	2	8 0	1756	2	5 3	
1677	2	2 0	1717	2	5 8	1757	3	0 0	
1678	2	19 0	1718	1	18 10	1758	2	10 0	
1679	3	0 0	1719	1	15 0	1759	1	19 10	
1680	2	5 0	1720	1	17 0	1760	1	16 6	
2 10 7			2 4 10			1 10 3			
1681	2	6 8	1721	1	17 6	1761	1	10 3	
1682	2	4 0	1722	1	16 0	1762	1	19 0	
1683	2	0 0	1723	1	14 8	1763	2	0 9	
1684	2	4 0	1724	1	14 8	1764	2	6 9	
1685	2	6 8	1725	1	17 0	2 1 8			
1686	1	14 0	1726	2	8 6				
1687	1	5 2	1727	2	6 0				
1688	2	6 0	1728	2	2 0				
1689	1	10 0	1729	2	14 6				
1690	1	14 8	1730	2	6 10				
1 19 1			2 1 11						
Year. 8 Gallons. 9 Gallons.			Year. 8 Gallons. 9 Gallons.						
1771	2	7 2	2	13 0	1780	1	15 8	2	0 1
1772	2	10 8	2	17 0	1781	2	4 8	2	10 5
1773	2	11 0	2	17 4	1782	2	7 10	2	13 9
1774	2	12 8	2	19 3	1783	2	12 8	2	19 3
1775	2	8 4	2	14 4	1784	2	8 10	2	14 11
1776	1	18 2	2	3 11	1785	2	1 10	2	7 0
1777	2	5 6	2	11 2	1786	1	18 10	2	5 8
1778	2	3 0	2	7 5	1787	2	1 8	2	6 3
1779	1	13 6	1	17 8	1788	2	5 0	2	16 7
T. Gillet, Printer, Salisbury-square.					Average 2 10 4				

Rank	Name	Points
1	W. H. H. H.	10
2	W. H. H. H.	8
3	W. H. H. H.	6
4	W. H. H. H.	4
5	W. H. H. H.	2
6	W. H. H. H.	1
7	W. H. H. H.	0
8	W. H. H. H.	0
9	W. H. H. H.	0
10	W. H. H. H.	0
11	W. H. H. H.	0
12	W. H. H. H.	0
13	W. H. H. H.	0
14	W. H. H. H.	0
15	W. H. H. H.	0
16	W. H. H. H.	0
17	W. H. H. H.	0
18	W. H. H. H.	0
19	W. H. H. H.	0
20	W. H. H. H.	0

11
5
9
3
1
0
8
3
7

